FEBRUARY, 1848.

VOLUME I. NO. II.

THE

WESTERN JOURNAL,

OF

AGRICULTURE, MANUFACTURES, MECHANIC ARTS, INTERNAL IMPROVEMENT COMMERCE,

AND

GENERAL LITERATURE.

Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts are the basis of Civilization.

M. TARVER AND T. F. RISK,
EDITORS AND PROPRIETORS.

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COMMUNICATIONS ARE INVITED UPON THE FOLLOWING SUBJECTS:

1. The adaptation of the Climate and Soil of the West to Sheep Growing, and the prospect of profit arising from this branch of husbandry.
2. Upon the introduction of Manufactures in the West.
3. Upon the subject of Internal Improvement in Missouri, and the Mississippi Valley in general, and the locations which will best promote the general interest.
4. The Internal Commerce of the United States.
5. The Mineral Resources of the Valley of the Mississippi.

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ST. LOUIS, MO.

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TO THE PUBLIC PRESS.

We beg leave to express our sentiments of gratitude for the kind and complimentary terms in which the Editors of the public journals, both of the city and country, have noticed the first number of the Western Journal. It is cheering to him who is about to enter upon an arduous and important enterprise, to hear the hearty "God speed" in the voice of friends; and yet more cheering when repeated by strangers, for this gives assurance that there are those who are friendly to the cause, as well as to the individual.

Indulging a hope that we may be of mutual benefit to each other, we tender our respects to the Editors of the West, and shall be pleased to exchange with all those who feel an interest in the success of our work.

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We have taken the liberty of sending the Western Journal to many individuals who are not subscribers; these are not to suppose that they are under any obligation to take the work: those, however, who may esteem it worthy of patronage, will please to let us hear from them before the publication of the next number.

TO AGENTS.

Such individuals as have been requested to act as agents, will please to let us hear from them at an early day.

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Upon the culture and best mode of preparing Hops for market; the cost of production, and the kind of soil, &c., adapted to their growth.

SUBJECTS FOR THE MARCH NUMBER.

1. The Geology and Mineral Resources of the State of Missouri, continued from the first number.
2. The Obligation of Contracts, continued.
3. Political and Moral Economy.
4. Improvement of the Western Waters by the Federal Government.
5. Literature of the West.
6. On the natural advantages for manufacturing on the Ohio River.

THE

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M. TARVER & T. F. RISK, EDITORS & PROPRIETORS.

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THE WESTERN JOURNAL.

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ART. I.—POLITICAL ECONOMY.

INTRODUCTION TO THE SUBJECT. — DISTRIBUTION AND DIRECTION OF LABOR. — THE IMPORTANCE OF THE EMPLOYMENT OF EVERY INDIVIDUAL. — DIRECTION OF LABOR. — THE IMPORTANCE OF LOCATING THE PRODUCER AND CONSUMER NEAR TO EACH OTHER.

In discussing the leading subjects designed to be embraced in the WESTERN JOURNAL, we shall endeavor so to arrange them as to keep their relations to each other in constant view. By adopting this method, we shall be the better able to point out the connection of one interest with another, and to show the mutual dependence of each. Notwithstanding the practical application of these subjects is designed for the Valley of the Mississippi, (and, in that respect, local,) yet we shall aim to draw deductions from truths that are universal in their nature, and which are, therefore, interesting to the people of every country.

Writers on political economy regard the wealth of countries, with but little reference to the moral nature of man, or to the social condition of the people. They appreciate labor as the agent of civilization, and as the means of producing the appliances of human comfort; but propose no moral reward to the laborer; they offer no reasons calculated to reconcile him to his condition; and leave him to toil under the influence of necessity, or from a desire to accumulate wealth, unchastened by moral refinement

In the course of our discussions, we shall endeavor to show that there are other and higher rewards associated with labor; and that it was ordained by the Creator not only for the purpose of feeding and clothing the body, but also to elevate and dignify the moral nature of man. These discussions will lead us to consider the importance of associating mental and moral improvement with useful employments; to the end that man may become reconciled to labor in obedience to the laws of his being.

These moral considerations will either be interwoven with the principal subjects or embodied in separate articles at the conclusion of each number, as may appear most appropriate and convenient.

Although we esteem this branch of our subject as properly belonging to political economy, yet as it has not, hitherto, been treated in connection with that science, we shall call it "moral economy;" and, by that title, shall refer to it as occasion may require.

The field of investigation upon which we are about to enter, is not only extensive, but, in many respects, new; and although fertile, yet will require much labor, to make it fruitful. These considerations, however, will not discourage us, if we shall be so fortunate as to receive the approbation of our readers.

DISTRIBUTION OF LABOR.

The primary wants of man in a state of nature, are food, and protection from the inclemencies of the seasons. These are merely physical: civilization adds others equally essential; and, among the first of these, we must place mental and moral improvement. Hence the propriety of uniting moral with political economy; for, although food and shelter may sustain man in a state of nature, civilization can only be sustained by mental and moral culture.

The spontaneous productions of nature are only sufficient to support a small number of human beings in a state of barbarism: all beyond this limit is the result of labor and knowledge combined; and without this combination the earth must have remained a wilderness, and the human family a horde of savages.

The inhabitants of the earth having increased far beyond its capacity to sustain them without labor, and, for the reason that labor cannot be profitably directed without knowledge, it will be readily perceived that not only the comfort but the existence, also, of a large portion of the human family depend upon a wise direction of their employment.

Man is so constituted, that a certain degree of exercise is necessary to insure a healthful condition of his physical nature; and, without this, all physical enjoyments lose their relish and fail to delight his senses. This exercise was doubtless designed by the Creator to be appropriated to the production of the means of human comfort, and to redeem man from a state of barbarism. Hence we conclude, that, if every individual were to appropriate that exercise which is necessary to sustain health, to some useful purpose, that this would be sufficient to produce the appliances of every reasonable comfort, and leave ample time for mental improvement, and social intercourse.

Were it not so, little, or perhaps, no advancement could be made in civilization, except by such as should avail themselves of the labor of others; therefore, if all should not be employed according to their capacity, and a considerable portion should subsist upon the labor of other hands than their own, the burthen would become unequal; and those upon whom it should bear the heaviest, must faint by the way, and fall behind in the march of civilization.

An equal distribution of labor among the inhabitants of a country, and a judicious direction of this labor to proper objects, constitute the true basis of political economy: and the permanent prosperity of every country, must mainly depend upon the observance of this proposition.

In considering the condition of the inhabitants of a country, we must constantly bear in mind that there are certain wants, which are common to every individual. Among these, are food and clothing, shelter from the inclemencies of the seasons, exercise and rest, intellectual improvement and moral instruction; and if these wants are not supplied, physical suffering, and moral degradation, are the necessary consequences. Every departure from an equal distribution of labor, tends to deprive a portion of the community of the means of supplying some one or more of these wants.

To illustrate the effects of an unequal distribution of labor, we will suppose, that a community of ten individuals should have so ordered their time, as to labor seven hours out of twenty-four; and, finding this sufficient to produce every reasonable comfort, they should appropriate the other seventeen hours to mental improvement, social intercourse, rest, and refreshment. Now, if one of the number should, from any cause, cease to labor, and subsist by the labor of the other nine, they would be compelled to forego a portion of their former comforts, or add forty-six minutes *per diem* to their time of employment. If two of this community should cease to labor, and subsist in like manner upon the labor of the other eight, *these* must increase their time to eight hours and forty-five minutes. And if three should cease to labor, and still draw their subsistence from the labor of the remaining seven, the latter would be required to labor just ten hours *per diem;* or, otherwise, suffer great diminution in their former comforts. This withdrawal of three out of ten would leave the remaining seven but little time to devote to mental improvement or to social intercourse; and, moreover, the time for improvement would not only be lessened, but the faculties of the mind would be impaired also; for when physical exercise is carried beyond a certain point, it ceases to afford pleasure, and produces a state of suffering, arising from exhaustion; and the mind, sympathizing with the body, loses its elasticity and yields to the physical demand for repose.

Hence we perceive how important it is to the advancement of civilization, that every individual should be usefully employed; for it is utterly impracticable that any considerable portion of a community can subsist upon the labor of the other without producing a state of want and moral degradation; and it may be well questioned, whether the moral condition of any country can improve, where as many as three individuals out of every ten, who are capable, should, from any cause, fail to be engaged in some useful employment. It is not sufficient that those who are not usefully employed should pay in money for all that they consume; this would not alter the case in the end — it would not lessen the amount of productive labor required to support the community; for, money being the

representative of labor, which was performed, perhaps, a thousand years ago, in digging the metal from the mines, can, in no way, lessen the amount of labor at present required to support the human family.

DIRECTION OF LABOR.

It is not only important that labor should be equally distributed, but it is like a important, to the prosperity of every country, that it should be wisely directed; for it may happen that although every individual should contribute their just proportion of labor, yet, because of its unwise application, the community may not prosper. The worn out and exhausted condition of the old States of the Union, south of the Potomac, afford undeniable and convincing proof in support of this proposition; and, as far as we are acquainted with history, the same causes have produced like effects in every country which has pursued the policy of transporting their agricultural products in a raw condition, and have relied upon foreign countries for a considerable portion of their necessary comforts.

The effects of this policy are the same as those produced by the voluntary withdrawal of a portion of the community from useful employment. The intrinsic value of a commodity is in no way increased by transportation, but often diminished. A barrel of flour affords no more nutriment at Manchester, England, than in Missouri, where it is produced; nor will a yard of cloth manufactured at Manchester, make a larger or more comfortable garment in Missouri, than it would at the place of its production. Therefore, the labor and cost incident to the transportation of these articles, is so much withdrawn from the ranks of the producers, and necessarily tends to increase the burthen of labor.

We do not wish to be understood as proposing to dispense with the transportation and exchange of commodities; on the contrary, we hold that these exchanges are necessary to the advancement of civilization, and to the general distribution of human comfort. Our principal design is to show the importance of locating the producers and consumers, of every commodity, as near to each other as the nature of the case will admit. This we esteem the true policy of the people of every country; and upon its adoption, or rejection, will depend their ultimate prosperity.

The first, and perhaps the most important, consideration connected with this policy, is the preservation and proper application of the natural wealth of the country. This consists, mainly, of the *soils*, *minerals*, *forests*, and *water courses*; and if these should be improvidently destroyed, or suffered to lie unimproved, no artificial means can secure permanent prosperity.

The soil being the most important object of natural wealth, its preservation and improvement should ever be kept in view, and regarded as the leading principle in the policy of every country. But it is scarcely possible to preserve the soil — much less to improve it — in a country that exports its products in the form of raw material; for every article exported carries with it a portion of the productive properties of the soil, which never return; and to that extent lessens the

natural wealth of the country. Besides this, none other than the principal staples can be profitably exported; and as these are generally great exhausters of the soil, a rotation of crops becomes necessary; and if not adopted, the land must lie idle to rest. From this cause, much of the land in staple-growing districts is thrown out of cultivation, and finally abandoned as worthless; for where there is no demand for the alternating crop, the cultivation of the staple is usually continued until the crop will no longer pay for the labor bestowed upon it. But if the manufacturer and artist were located near the agriculturalist, then there would be not only a better demand for the staples, but for the more bulky and perishable articles also. Root crops, grass, the produce of the orchard and garden, with many other articles, which are now of little or no value, would find a ready and profitable market; and thus the whole area of arable land would be cultivated, and made to produce a valuable crop every year. By thus increasing the variety of products, much employment would be found suitable for children and other weak hands, that are of little or no use in the production of the great staples.

The forest, also, which, in many parts of the country, is considered a disadvantage, rather than a benefit, would become a great source of wealth. The water power would likewise be appropriated to useful purposes; and even the rocks, which are now considered worse than useless, would, in many places, if not every where, in time, become sources of wealth. But what shall we say of the extensive coal fields of the Mississippi Valley? In these there slumbers a physical power surpassing the combined strength of the whole human race; nor is the political and moral power which these are calculated to impart, less important. But all these are of but little utility to a country which is merely agricultural; and more especially to those staple-growing districts which rely upon foreign consumers for a market, and upon foreign producers for clothing and other articles of comfort and convenience.

This reliance upon foreign consumers for a demand, may be considered among the great evils of the present age; especially in the Valley of the Mississippi. In producing for foreign markets, we come in competition with the producers of every other part of the earth. Let us examine the true nature of this competition. Two bushels of wheat is produced in Missouri and transported to Liverpool. When it arrives there, the grower, supposing him still to be the owner, gives one bushel to pay for the transportation of the other. Thus giving away one half of the produce of his own labor for the privilege of competing with the wheat grower in England. Now if we assume that it requires the same amount of labor to produce a bushel of wheat in each country, and that the English farmer gives one half of his crop to the land owner, as rent, still he would be in a better condition than the Missouri farmer, who had given one half of his wheat to pay the transportation and other incidental charges: for rent, or the interest on the capital invested in land, must be paid in Missouri, in addition to the cost of transportation. Labor is also cheaper in England than here; which is also an

advantage in favor of the English farmer. Hence it will be perceived, that notwithstanding the cheapness and fertility of soil, combined with all the advantages of a cheap and free government, yet, owing to an absurd and defective system of political economy, labor in Missouri is no better rewarded than in England, where it is burthened with the support of a landed aristocracy and the most expensive government upon earth.

But we not only come in competition with the English farmer, but with all Europe; and especially with the northern part, where farm labor costs less than half the price paid for it in Missouri; and the cost of transportation thence to England is much less than from this country. We do not forget (for we desire to treat the subject fairly,) that, so far as the products of the Missouri farmer are consumed at home, he possesses an advantage over the foreign producer; but we consider this advantage more than counterbalanced by the increased price which he pays for clothing and articles of foreign manufacture. But there are other evils, arising from this reliance upon foreign markets, besides the loss of labor.

The foreign demand depends upon so many contingencies that it is impossible for the farmer in Missouri to form any reliable opinion in regard to the markets; and being often disappointed, he becomes discouraged, and produces less than he would if a reasonable calculation could be made in regard to the demand and the price of his produce. This uncertainty also has a tendency to encourage speculation and over-trading in both merchandize and produce, and gives rise to a spirit of restlessness and discontent throughout the land. Furthermore, it subjects us to the influence of the pecuniary revulsions which take place in foreign countries, which adds greatly to the contingencies and accidents incident to every branch of industry. These are evils which no foresight can guard against, and to which we must always be subject, so long as our present policy continues.

Nor is the commerce between the Mississippi Valley and the eastern States, in some respects, upon a footing more favorable to the west than that with Great Britain. Twenty cents per bushel may be assumed as the average price of corn in Missouri; and if a farmer here should desire to exchange corn for cotton cloth worth ten cents per yard, he would get two yards for one bushel of corn: while the farmer in Massachusetts would get seven yards of cloth, of the same quality, for the same quantity of corn — valuing the cloth at nine cents per yard, and the corn at sixty-three cents per bushel, which would be about the average price there of the two articles. And thus the farmer in Missouri gets only two-sevenths as much of every article of eastern manufacture, which he pays for in corn, as does the corn grower in Massachusetts. Indeed, if the articles should be heavy and bulky, the freight upon them would increase this ratio of cost to the Missouri farmer. It is, beyond question, owing to the proximity of the producers of corn and cotton cloth, that secures this advantage to the eastern farmer; for five bushels out of the seven of the Missouri corn goes to pay the carriers, commission merchants, and others, engaged in effecting the exchange. If the farmer desired to

exchange wheat for eastern manufactures, he would get, on an average, about half the quantity that the farmer in Massachusetts would get; while in the exchange of flour he would only lose about from twenty-five to thirty per cent. And here we have a striking illustration of the effects of manufacturing; for the simple process of manufacturing the wheat into flour, reduces the loss in the exchange of this article to about one half; and although this may not be a direct gain to the farmer, it is so much saved to the country, and inures to the general benefit and prosperity of all classes. Beef and pork, upon foot, may also be set down at about double the price in Massachusetts as in Missouri. But the difference is much less when packed in barrels; this is owing to the cost of packing, including the salt and the barrel.

It may be assumed, as a fair proposition, that one half of the value of all the exports from Missouri is paid for transporting them to market, and in the difference of price between the cost here of the manufactured articles which we consume, and their cost at the place of production. But this is only a part of the loss; for we have endeavored to show that the exportation of the raw material is not only destructive to the land, but that if the consumers were nearer to the producers, the latter would find a profitable market for many articles which might be raised at little cost, without lessening the amount of the larger staples.

We have endeavored to analyze the subject and to state it fairly; and we respectfully invite our agricultural readers to examine the matter for themselves; and we think that they will conclude with us, that there is, perhaps, no other country, where every individual is free to choose his employment, in which labor is so unwisely or unprofitably directed as in the western portion of the Mississippi Valley.

ART. II.—MORAL ECONOMY.

Having noticed the necessity of exercise, as the means of insuring a healthful condition of man's physical nature—and also the importance of its application to useful purposes—we now propose to consider labor as a moral institution.

The Creator, in his benevolence, has associated pleasure with the performance of every office necessary either to the support and comfort of our individual existence or to the perpetuation of the race. Alternate exercise and rest—the grateful flavor of food—sexual love—and parental affection—were ordained as incentives to human action; and may be regarded as rewards of obedience to the laws of our physical nature. So, likewise, every act of obedience to the Divine will, and every social action which imparts benefits to others, give rise to emotions of pleasure; and these being assimilated with our moral nature, remain a permanent source of gratification. And he who neglects to enrich his heart with

the comforts which flow from a sense of obedience to the laws of his being, or with the pleasurable emotions which arise from social actions, must not only remain a stranger to moral happiness, but also suffer the penalties annexed to disobedience.

We have endeavored to show, that by the economy of man's nature, his existence in a civilized state can only be sustained by labor and knowledge combined; therefore, had labor been attended with no other reward than the gratification of the senses, the condition of man would have been infinitely worse than that of any other created being. But the Di ine Word, which declared that "In the sweat of thy face shalt thou eat bread," redeemed man from this hard condition. This added *a moral duty* to the *physical necessity;* and although the burthen was not increased, man thereby became the recipient of the rewards attendant upon labor as a moral institution. How benevolent and sublimely beautiful appear the designs of the Creator, when thus considered! Yet man, not perceiving the moral obligation, nor appreciating the rewards of obedience, looks alone to the physical necessity, and esteems labor a curse imposed upon his race. And until this fatal delusion shall be removed, he must continue to labor under the law of physical necessity, or from a morbid desire to accumulate wealth; and civilization, as ever heretofore, will be doomed to rise and fall like the waves of a troubled ocean.

Owing to the blindness and ignorance of man, in regard to the means of promoting his own happiness, he is prone to look upon labor as a condition degrading to his nature; and endeavors to escape from it by any method which his imagination can devise. As well might we expect that a galley slave would be scrupulous in regard to the manner of escaping from the toils of the oar, as to expect that one who perceives no moral reward associated with labor, should be quite conscientious in selecting the mode of escape from a condition which he esteems not less hard and degrading. Void of gratitude to his Maker, and feeling no sympathy for his fellow-man, he submits to the dominion of self love; and disregarding all social observances and moral obligations, he goes forth prepared for deeds of desperation, and resolves to imitate the rich and privileged orders in appropriating the labors of others to his own use. Hence the knave, clothed in falsehood and deception, like the fabled Proteus, assumes every form and guise Is he a dealer in small wares, he pratices upon the ignorant and the credulous with false representations of value, with false weights and measures, and ingeniously conceals the defects of his commodities. A merchant, he is a speculator, cunning in the art of raising and depressing the markets by concealment and false intelligence. A mechanic, he is unfaithful and unjust to his employer, and working up to the letter of his contract: to secure the enforcement of his demand, he disregards the moral part of the obligation, and rejoices in the fraud. A physician, he is ignorant of the science, and of all the virtues which adorn the profession; and, eager for his fee, he boldly exhibits his nostrums, reckless of their

effects. He studies the art of insinuation more than medicine, and imposes upon the ignorant and the unwary, by the use of hard names and the abuse of all systems but his own. A lawyer, unmindful that he is the agent of justice, he is a trickster in practice; and, regardless of the interest of his client, experiments upon his rights by encouraging litigation; suborns, or is privy to the subornation of perjury, and aids in defrauding the ignorant of their rights: bringing reproach upon the administration of the laws of the country, and upon the profession to which he belongs. A minister of religion, he is regardless of aught save his own interest: he seeks an alliance with wealth, intrigues for the best living; and having succeeded in his schemes, throws off the mask which covered his knavery, and laughs at the gullibility of the world. A politician, ignorant of every principle which constitutes and adorns a statesman, he is a demagogue, following the lead of the party in power, regardless of all other consequences than his own political advancement; and pandering to the prejudices and passions of his constituents, he manages to divert their attention from the consideration of his baseness; and by his vile practices, deprives the country of the services of more honorable and capable men.

Actuated by the same cause, the more degraded seek to procure by theft the means of existence, which might be acquired with less risk and more certainty by honest industry. While the more daring spirits, armed with instruments of death, go forth to rob the unprotected traveler or the unguarded mansion. Hence, too, the strolling mendicant, the mountebank, and the army of vagabonds, all seeking to reap where they have not sown.

This prejudice against labor, and the evils which flow from it, are not confined to those whose condition requires them to be engaged in useful employment, but extends to all classes. The apprehension that, from some unforeseen accident, they may be compelled to labor — and a strong desire to rescue their offspring from a condition esteemed so hard and degrading — lessen the enjoyments of the rich, and make them timid in the application of a reasonable portion of their wealth to social purposes. And more than all, this prejudice against labor mingles with nature's pure fountain; and those holy affections, which were designed to resolve two hearts into one, are poisoned and polluted with gold. It is true, that in this country, few, or perhaps none, will admit that labor is a degradation, or that it detracts from the respectability of an individual; nevertheless, we can not be blind to the fact, that the prejudice against labor is still strong and deeply rooted in the general mind; and that a desire for the possession of wealth, rather than a sense of moral duty, constitutes the principal incentive to labor — except in the case of such as are compelled from necessity.

Labor induced by a mere desire for wealth, or by necessity, may develop the resources and increase the wealth of a country, but can not secure the permanent advancement of civilization and of moral improvement. The people of this country require little to stimulate them to labor; and there is, perhaps, no other coun-

try in which labor is so generally and equally distributed. But we desire that all men should labor from a sense of duty: this would equalize and lighten the physical burthen of labor — while a consciousness of obedience to the will of the Creator would be a continual source of moral pleasure. Then, man would no longer desire to escape from this condition of his nature; and the motives to subsist upon the labor of others would cease, and justice prevail throughout the earth: and the causes of social enmity ceasing, sympathy and social love would every where abound; and the precept, which requires that man should do unto others as he would that they should do unto him — and that other, which teaches him to love his neighbor as himself — would no longer be considered as opposed to his individual interest.

ART. III.—THE OBLIGATION OF CONTRACTS,

OR AN INQUIRY INTO THE NATURE AND DEGREE OF EQUALITY REQUIRED IN CONTRACTS OF MUTUAL INTEREST.

The subject of our inquiry enters so extensively into the pursuits and business of active life, that to many it may seem an idle undertaking to pursue an investigation of the kind. But to the reflecting mind — to every one who is willing to look into the reason of things — the subject is one of deep interest. In the mere theory of contracts there is sufficient to lead us to the investigation we propose; and if we have carefully observed the business of life, with its toils and strifes, we have seen enough to show us its practical importance.

If we look to our system of jurisprudence, and note its incongruities in respect to contracts, we shall be led, irresistibly, to the inquiry, Why such a state of things has so long existed? How it has happened that this matter has remained stationary for so long a time, while, during the same period, there has been steady and rapid progress in the arts and sciences, civilization, and the rules of government?

How frequently has it occurred, in the experience of almost every one, and to his great surprise, that what he had relied on as a valid obligation, is declared, from extraneous circumstances, to be of no binding force whatever. Such a result impresses itself upon the mind as a glaring incongruity in our system of laws. That incongruities exist, it would be hardihood to deny; but they are more a matter of regret than surprise. The reason of their existence is to be found in the history of our system of jurisprudence. Ours was the slow growth of many ages and several centuries. In each successive modification which it underwent in the progress of civil freedom — in the admixture of foreign learning and law — in its necessary adaptation to the ever augmenting wants of an extensive, bold and liberal spirited commerce — as new relations and new usages arose — new

views of equity or policy were opened, or old rules were adapted to purposes for which they were never intended, by judges who partook of the altered spirit of the times.

It would lead to an unprofitable digression to pursue the causes and history of the incongruities of the law. Let us return to the consideration of what may be regarded as settled doctrine, so far as external rules are concerned, in the matter of contracts

A *contract* is defined, by law writers, to be an agreement or mutual bargain between two or more contracting parties.

It is not necessary, for the investigation we have in view, to state the different kinds or sorts of contracts recognized in law. It is next said that it is essential to a valid agreement that it must be founded upon a *good consideration*. That which is the motive of the contract is regarded as the consideration, and this is essential to its validity. The *civilians* hold that, in all contracts, there must be something given in exchange — something that is mutual or reciprocal. And lawyers and divines, time out of mind, have said that "all bargains are made under the idea of giving and receiving equivalents in value."

In the mere exchange of commodities — the mere giving and receiving things which have a fixed value, or are of such a nature or kind that their value at the time of exchange can be ascertained with reasonable certainty — there need be no apprehension that an unfair advantage will or can be taken. But the point to which the reader's attention is directed, is to the important and difficult question as to the *nature and degree of equality in compensation, or in knowledge*, required between the parties to a contract, in order to make it binding in law and just and right in morals

If A. has a knowledge of some fact, which is unknown to B., but which materially affects the estimate or value of property of which B. is the owner, may not A. take advantage of his knowledge of such fact and buy the property of B., without communicating such fact to B.; and may not this be done without violating any rule or principle of law or morals?

Here is a practical statement of the question. In a case like this, ingenious minds, unhacknied in the ways of men and unaccustomed to argue away their first warm impressions, would not long hesitate in pronouncing such an advantage, if not a palpable fraud, at least an ungenerous trick. It is not unlikely that most men would pronounce such an advantage a bold fraud, and would look upon a system of laws which would uphold it, as unjust and disgraceful.

No better proof of the universal agreement of the decisions of untutored moral feeling in such cases, need be required, than is furnished by the indignation which is so frequently excited when an unlettered man — or one of feeble intellect — is over-reached by his crafty and unprincipled neighbor. An opinion apparently so natural, seldom springs from caprice or accidental prejudice. It must be regarded as the spontaneous result of the moral observation and experience of our whole

lives. It may be difficult to analyze it into its elements, still it is irresistible in its conviction.

This moral feeling, in a case like the one suggested, points at once to the motive or consideration for which B. parted with his property; to the idea or theory of giving and receiving equivalents. And it is argued that if the *vendor*, from the fact of being better informed, by extraneous circumstances, as to the true value of the thing sold, than the purchaser — or from any other cause, should knowingly obtain more for it than it is worth — or if, for want of equality of knowledge or accident, the buyer should get it for too little — in either case, one party has not received the equivalent which was the motive or consideration of the contract. As a matter of course, if this argument is sound — if it is sustained by reason and the dictates of morality — a contract made under circumstances of superior advantage to one or the other of the contracting parties, should be rescinded for want of equality

Now the question naturally occurs, whether it is possible, in the nature of things, to preserve exact equality in knowledge or value in the making of contracts?

It certainly would be a bold proposition to affirm that an individual cannot make an advantageous bargain without incurring the reproach of dishonesty. It would shock common sense to affirm that our code of morals prohibits an individual from exercising his sagacity and foresight in the making of agreements with his neighbor. While it is true that "*knowledge is power*," the experience of life teaches us that knowledge is the most useful capital employed in any business.

By common consent, the skilful and industrious are allowed the full benefit and enjoyment of that necessary superiority over their neighbors, which well-directed industry must always give. And it is fair to presume that no one will contend that it is essential to a fair bargain, or the making of a contract on principles of perfect equality, that the parties in respect to the subject matter should be required mutually to disclose their respective plans or anticipated profits.

All will allow that the hope of gain, leads to enterprise and activity, in the various pursuits and business of men. And it may be stated as an undeniable general proposition—subject, of course, to many exceptions — that the profits of every transaction, when not dependent on fortuitous circumstances, arise from the superiority of one party to the other, in some material knowledge in respect to the subject matter of the contract. This feature becomes more apparent as we extend our inquiries, and trace the analogy in different directions, of cases of the most opposite moral character — from the arts of deliberate knavery, to the fairest gains of skill and industry. Now, it is true, that the law of contracts, as it is settled in England and the United States, recognizes as its leading principles, that good faith must be preserved by the contracting parties towards each other; and that fraud or art on either side, affords good ground for the interference of the ministers of the law, to protect or relieve the injured party.

He who, in his social as well as business relations with his fellow-man, follows the golden precept — "*Whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them*" — has a sure guide for his conduct in every exigency of life. He will do justice and do equity. For a people following this rule, human laws would be unnecessary; they would be "*a law unto themselves.*" But we must take the world as it is, and deal with men as we find them. And although the reflection is a humiliating one, it is nevertheless a reality, that however men may shrink from deliberate and bare-faced knavery, they are too prone to indulge in mental sophistry; too prone to argue themselves into a compliance with their secret inclinations; and thus cheat themselves out of their own honesty.

The law is designed to protect the innocent and weak from the machinations and corrupt designs of those who disregard the great precepts of nature and morality. And our present inquiry is, to ascertain whether existing laws, in regard to contracts, are adequate to correct the mischiefs they are designed to prevent. We are in search of a principle which, in the making of contracts, shall unite morality and law and make a just and invariable rule. We are in search of a principle, as the basis of all contracts, which will not admit of apparently opposite and incongruous application. We are in search of a principle which, without shocking our notions of morality, will afford a safe, and, at the same time, just rule, by which we may determine what extraneous facts, exclusively within the power and knowledge of one party, shall render a contract void. We are in search of a principle that shall afford an unerring and just rule by which our Courts, in order to prevent inequality, may determine when, and under what circumstances, one party to a contract is or is not bound in law to disclose to the other the facts or motives which led to it. In short, we are in search of a principle which will establish uniformity — which may serve to elevate temporal laws to the dignity and equality of unerring justice.

This is by no means a question of pure speculation. If a uniform and inflexible rule can be discovered, it will afford indubitable testimony that men are capable of understanding and practising exact justice. And it will effectually relieve our Courts from the reproach, to which they are now exposed, of applying directly opposite rules to the same questions, as it may chance to arise in a Court of law and equity.

In order that the inconsistency of which we complain, may be made more apparent to the general reader, it may be well to state a few of the general rules touching the matter of contracts, as they have been settled in Great Britain and the United States — two of the greatest commercial nations in the world.

It should be remarked, in this connection, that however diversified the question may have been presented, and however varied in feature — whether it has arisen from extraneous facts not known to one of the parties — concealment in sales, or inadequacy of price — still, the question is really the same.

The rule of the common law, as it has long been considered settled in England,

and as it is now fully recognized in the United States, declares, in unequivocal terms, *that a buyer is not bound to communicate his knowledge to the seller, of extraneous facts, which influence the price of the commodity, and which was exclusively within the knowledge of the buyer.* And the only guard against palpable fraud, or undue advantage, which is thrown around the innocent and unwary, is found in the declaration, "*that each party must take care not to say or do any thing tending to impose upon the other.*"

It is also true (though common law Courts have not expressly said so,) that the rule, as stated above, was undoubtedly designed to apply to cases where the means of knowledge are equally accessible to both parties. But the text of the common law is without qualification. Writers upon the law of contracts, both in England and America, state the doctrine in such broad and general terms, that its application to particular cases, without modification, not unfrequently causes a shudder, and our feelings revolt at the apparent injustice and utter inequality of the law.

It is laid down as one of the fundamental precepts of the common law — as a settled rule, which is beyond the reach of argument — that *the knowledge by the buyer of any fact materially enhancing the value of property — and the known ignorance of it by the seller at the time of sale* — will not affect the validity of the sale. While this doctrine is enunciated and enforced in this country, by a Judge * distinguished for learning, correct judgment, clear perceptions of moral duty, and great purity of character — another, † equally distinguished, maintains that "*not only good morals, but the common law, requires good faith; and that every man, in his contracts, should act with common honesty, without defrauding his neighbors by false allegations or fraudulent concealments.*" The principle, which these apparently discordant rules are designed to establish, is the same, undoubtedly, in both cases. The end, sought to be attained, is to preserve good equality and good faith in contracts. It is to hold in check the over-reaching and dishonest. It is to afford security to the fair dealer.

If, in reply, it is said, there is a distinction in these and other similar cases, when the law applies apparently different rules, let us inquire where shall the line of distinction be drawn? If these rules are necessary parts of a great system, and essential to its perfection, it would seem they could be made to harmonize in their application. That they are discordant in theory, cannot be successfully denied. How, then, can they be made to harmonize in their application? This cannot be done, unless it be admitted that one is the *general* principle and the other the *exception*. If this position be assumed, it leads at once to the conclusion, that the apparent contradictions to natural justice in our civil jurisprudence, is the result of policy or necessity; and that, for wise and inscrutable reasons, the law *permits* what it does not sanction.

* Chief Justice Marshall.—2. Wheaton 195.
† Chief Justice Parsons —4. Mass. 489.

If this conclusion prevails, it becomes important to every one, whose conduct is guided by moral precepts, to know what are the limits of these opposing rules of justice and policy. It is necessary to understand this, with a view to private conduct and also to avoid infractions of the law.

(*To be Continued.*)

ART. IV.—AGRICULTURE, AND THE INFLUENCE OF AGRICULTURE ON MANUFACTURES.

THE EFFECTS OF COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES UPON AGRICULTURE IN EUROPE, MANUFACTURES IN MIDDLESEX, MASSACHUSETTS.—NUMBER OF CATTLE, HORSES, AND SHEEP, TO THE SQUARE MILE, IN ENGLAND AND WALES.—RAILROADS IN MIDDLESEX.

THE following address, delivered by E. H. DERBY, Esq., before the Middlesex County, (Massachusetts,) Agricultural Society, we have selected from the December number of the Merchant's Magazine.

Although designed for farmers of Middlesex county, yet, this address is fraught with instruction to the western agriculturalist; and contains many valuable facts, which we commend to the consideration of our readers. From this, we learn, that the county of Middlesex annually produces manufactures amounting to $23,000,000. An amount more than double the average exportation of breadstuffs from the whole country; and equal in value to about one half the whole cotton crop of the United States. We are further informed, that the lines of rail road already constructed, and chartered, exceed two hundred miles; and that the population of the county live within an average distance of one mile from the iron-way.

We trust that such facts as these, will induce the people of the South and West, to inquire into the causes which conspire to concentrate the wealth of the country in New England:

"AGRICULTURE has become essential to life. The forest, the lake, and the ocean, cannot sustain the increasing family of man. Population declines with a declining cultivation, and nations have ceased to be with the extinction of their agriculture.

"When harvests are exuberant, joy and health follow in their train; but let delusive prosperity draw industry from agriculture; let an insidious disease attack one of its important products; let an insect, or a parasite, fasten on a single esculent, and mark the effect upon commerce and human life. Upon such an event all business is deranged; the commercial marine of the world proves itself unequal to the crisis; sloops of war and frigates become carriers of grain; warehouses,

canals, railroads, and ports, prove insufficient to the exigency; masses of specie flow from the guarded treasuries of the old world to the rude cabins of the prairies; manufactures and public improvements stop in their course; famine and pestilence invade provinces and States; and the pale survivors, reckless of those ties which bind man to his birth-place, brave storms and shipwreck, sickness and death, on the route to new and untried regions.

"A glance at such events, which the present year has witnessed, must impress us with the vast importance of agriculture, both as an occupation and a science.

"Agriculture, in ancient times, was esteemed and honored. In classic Greece and Rome it was the theme of the popular poets of the age, and was not deemed unworthy of distinguished warriors and statesmen. We read of Cicero at his Tusculan villa, of Cato at his farm, of Cincinnatus leaving his plough to command the armies of the republic; while the great naturalist, Pliny, in his beautiful letters, prides himself on his vineyards.

"The overflow of the Nile, the fertilizer of Egypt, has been celebrated for centuries as the great festival of the country; and in that "central flowery land," which claims such remote antiquity, the sovereign of three hundred millions, 'the son of heaven, whose person is too sacred to be seen, whose imperial despatch is received amid burning incense and prostration, and in whose presence no one dares speak but in a whisper,' annually exhibits himself to his subjects, holding a plough in honor of agriculture.

"In England, too, whose nobles shrink from all connection with trade, agriculture is highly honored. Earls, dukes, and princes, preside at agricultural festivals, compete for prizes, and do not disdain to write treatises on the culture of roots, the rotation of crops, and manufacture of composts Sir Robert Peel, the great statesman of the age, is one day bearing down by his eloquence the opposition of Parliament to his vigorous and enlightened policy, and another discussing the prospects of agriculture among the farmers of Tamworth.

"It is, too, with mingled pleasure and pride that we recur to the fact, that the hero and statesman, who led the armies of our revolution, was himself a practical farmer. Amid all the excitement, harassing duties, and embarrassments of a protracted war, he directed by letters the operations of his farm, and finally retired from the highest position to which talent and patriotism could aspire, followed by the love of his countrymen, to devote to agriculture the close of his life; and it is a little remarkable that his example has been followed by nearly all who have succeeded to the office of President.

"In view of these facts, may we not ask, has agriculture enjoyed in New England the prominence and popularity to which it may well aspire; and is the position of the farmer, lord of the soil here, and but a tenant in the old world, duly appreciated?

"It is obvious to the reflecting mind that the farmer has been affected by depressing influences, but is it not as apparent that they are ceasing to operate?

"Our fathers did not enjoy, as farmers, the privileges which we possess. The country, emerging from a long war, was deficient in capital. Implements and buildings were rude and defective; a few small seaports and fishing towns formed their principal markets; and access to these was by no means easy; for the bridle path blazed through the forest, the ford and the ferry, were but a poor substitute for the country road, the turnpike, canal, and railroad.

"At a period, too, when the wars of Europe made us the carriers of the world, it is not astonishing that talent and enterprise should have been drawn from the secluded home of the farmer to the perilous 'march upon the deep;' to the uncertain pursuits of trade, or to the sharp competition of professional life; growing with the growth of commerce, or be tempted to exchange the rudeness of the country for the enervating refinement of the city.

"Temperance, taste, and progressive art, education and the weekly press, had not yet guilded the home of the farmer; judicious enterprise had not yet drawn the daughters of New England from the distaff to the water-falls, and enlivened the adjacent districts by the creation of valuable markets.

"Contrast Massachusetts to-day with Massachusetts half a century since. Counties, checkered with factory villages, tied together by a fast spreading network of railroads, sparkling with school-houses, churches, and tasteful residences, and improving farms, and peopled by an intelligent and energetic race—compare these with all that preceded them, and we shall find much to cheer us in the contrast, without detracting, in any degree, from the courage and patriotism of our progenitors.

"If, in addition to the progress of the country, we take into account the vast increase of wealth, the advance in the mechanic arts, the discoveries of chemistry, shall we not arrive at the conclusion that agriculture now presents a new aspect, assumes a new importance, and offers new attractions?

"Let me invite you, on this occasion, to consider the degree of influence which science and capital may exert upon agriculture; to examine some of the effects which the growth of manufactures, commerce, and public improvements, produce upon the agricultural interest; and to briefly discuss the interest, prospects, and policy of the farmers of Middlesex.

"In estimating the importance of science and capital to agriculture, we learn, from the lessons of experience, that a fertile soil alone does not carry agriculture to perfection. Should we seek the spots where agriculture gives the largest and most remunerative returns for a given space, we should find them not on the fertile banks of the Nile or the Ganges, the rich plains and valleys of Sicily, or the prairies of the West, where a virgin soil and low prices attract so many youthful cultivators. Far otherwise. You must look to Flanders and Holland. There, science and capital combined, in a harsh climate, have rescued vast wastes from the ocean, and converted sterile marshes and barren sands into productive fields, the very garden of Europe; or look at England, our parent land, where the same

powerful combination has transformed the sandy plains of Norfolk, for centuries abandoned to the rabbit, into luxuriant fields of wheat, clover, and turnips; and changed the fens of Lincolnshire, which encircle the old town of Boston—fens, for centuries, the resort of wild ducks, geese, and other birds of passage, into the granary of England.

"The soil of Belgium was originally sand and clay alone. It has been enriched by ashes and composts, until it has become a rich, black, loamy mould. Tanks are provided on the farms for liquids, and each cow is estimated to produce ten tons of solid, and twelve of liquid manures. Every expedient is resorted to, both to increase their quantity and to improve their quality. Rotation of crops followed; and the result of these efforts is, that Belgium sustains a population of three hundred and fifty people, sixty-seven cattle, and seventeen horses, to the square mile; usually raises her own breadstuffs, and exports wheat, madder, flax, wool, and bark, to other parts of Europe In Holland, where the dike, steam-engine, and wind-mill are employed to prevent the incursion of the sea upon land gained from its bosom, a population of two hundred and fourteen to the mile is sustained, and large exports made of butter, cheese, and other agricultural products. The average value of land is nearly three hundred dollars per acre, although it is burthened with opppressive taxes.*

"To learn the causes of the astonishing fertility and large returns flowing from the conquests of art over nature, we must recur to the history of Belgium and Holland. For centuries they have been the seats of commerce and the arts.

"In the eleventh century, Ghent and Bruges, cities of Belgium, were important commercial towns, and supplied the courts of Europe with silks and tapestries. In the fifteenth century, Ghent contained fifty thousand weavers, and Bruges and Antwerp had each two hundred thousand people, and were the marts of the civilized world. In the sixteenth century, the harbor of Antwerp often contained two thousand five hundred vessels; her gates were daily entered by five hundred loaded wagons; and her magnificent Exchange, still standing, erected before the discovery of America, was attended twice a day by five thousand merchants.

"The country was covered with roads and canals; capital and art were applied to agriculture. The effect of a population, growing in numbers and wealth, was to stimulate the efforts of those engaged in agriculture; and, for six hundred years, commerce, manufactures and agriculture grew together, until the latter attained a height which has survived the wars and revolutions which nearly prostrated the former.

"Holland, too, has been, for centuries, the seat of manufactures, commerce, and wealth. In the seventeenth century Holland was the great naval power of the age, and controlled the trade of the Indies. Her shipping, 900,000 tons, equalled that of all the other powers of Europe; and her great cities, united to-

* Holland annually exports thirty-eight million pounds of cheese, and eighteen million pounds of butter. The average rate of the land tax, on farms, is ten to fourteen guilders per arpent—about three dollars per acre.

gether, and to the Rhine by canals, the admiration of Europe, were each devoted to some great branch of manufactures or commerce. From these agriculture received a mighty impulse.

"When England became the queen of the seas, and the patron of the arts — when she had invented the steam engine and the spinning-jenny, and applied her beds of coal to the production of iron — when she had opened her canals, and begun to build docks and harbors, a stimulus was given to agriculture, and wealth and science were drawn to districts which had lain dormant for centuries. They were both applied to the improvement of land. Soils were analyzed; tools of all kinds improved; lime and plaster transported by canals to the spot that required them; bone dust collected from the battle-fields of Europe, from La Plata and California; dikes and drains constructed; oil-cake imported, even from our county of Middlesex, to fatten her cattle and enrich her soil; and vessels were sent around Cape Horn to procure the excrement of birds. The produce of agriculture has been thus more than doubled, and her inhabitants carried to an average of three hundred per square mile, consuming food and occupying houses vastly superior to those of their fathers.

"England and Wales, with less than 60,000 square miles of surface, sustain 18,000,000 people, 26,000,000 sheep, 4,000,000 head of cattle, and 1,500,000 horses, in a condition unrivalled in any section of the world, and produce annually, beside, at least 240,000,000 bushels of breadstuffs.

"The county of Lancashire, the great seat of the cotton manufacture, the Middlesex of England, presents results more striking than those of the island at large. It has increased with a rapidity almost unexampled in the history of industry, and exhibits a population of 1,800,000, or 1,000 to the mile, on a space of but 1,800 square miles, an area barely equal to our two counties of Worcester and Middlesex.

"Lancashire, like our Middlesex, is studded with factories, and covered by a net-work of railroads and canals. Its soil, like that of Middlesex, is devoted principally to the culture of grass, fruit, and esculent vegetables, while its breadstuffs are drawn from other districts.

"There would seem to be something congenial to agriculture, in the very atmosphere of commerce and manufactures; for we read in the history of Carthage, by its conquerors, that around that ancient seat of trade and manufactures, and under the burning sun of Africa, there were clustered beautiful farms and country seats, canals, olive trees, and vineyards.

"The achievement of science and capital in the agriculture of the old world, lead us to appreciate aright their value, on this side of the Atlantic, and to take a more correct view of their importance and uses. A few rash experiments here, guided by no practical skill, may have led some to distrust theories and the value of book learning. Others have looked with a jaundiced eye on the accumulation of wealth—have regarded its votaries merely as a mercenary race, a class useless

to the community, instead of viewing them as stewards accumulating property for the benefit of society; forgetful that their wealth, whether invested in *banks, ships, docks,* or *avenues of trade,* or in *loans upon land,* is giving an impulse to the whole country.

"To insure the progress of agriculture, it is for science to indicate the path, to suggest the elements of the soil, to point out its deficiencies and the appropriate remedy, to present the improvements in tools, fences, and buildings, and the discoveries of art; but in vain would she place her finger upon these, unless her ally, capital, should follow, and furnish the stocks, tools, structures, and fertilizing substances, and aid in creating avenues from the farm to the market.

"There was a time, but few years since, when the credit of our State and country, now so elevated, was deeply depressed—when the bonds of Massachusetts found no purchasers. Science had planned that great avenue which makes Boston one of the seaports of the West; but means were wanting. By whom, think you, were they furnished? By those unfortunate Irishmen who seek here a refuge from bad laws and national calamities, who toil upon our public works, and to whom we owe all our canals, wharves, and railroads.

"The quiet accumulations of these small capitalists in the savings' bank of Boston, absorbed more than half a million of our bonds, and finished the Western Railroad.

"The progress of cities, towns, and manufactories, has created wealth, nurtured science, and aided their diffusion. Towns and cities have reacted on the country, have created a demand and liberal price for its products, and furnished it with the means of fertility, while towns and cities may trace their expansion to commerce and the arts.

"Commerce and manufactures have been fostered and stimulated by public improvements, which have collected and distributed their materials and products. The alliance thus cemented between the ship, the canal boat, the car and the spindle, the forge and the plough, has created great and prosperous nations, and verified Lord Bacon's oft-repeated theory, that three things are essential to the prosperity of a country—*fertile fields, busy workshops,* and *easy communication.*

"While, in England, the Netherlands, and portions of France, Germany, and Italy, all these advantages are enjoyed, there are extensive regions in which the fertility of nature is neutralized by the want of facilities of intercourse; and for centuries past, commerce and manufactures, population and agriculture, have languished or receded. When the Council of Castile were invited by an eminent engineer to open a canal from Madrid to the sea, they declined the invitation — coming to the sage conclusion that, if God had designed a navigable river for Madrid, he would have made it himself; and Spain, estranged from commerce and improvements, has made so little progress, that it has been wittily suggested that, were Adam to revisit this sphere, he would find the face of nature less changed, and feel himself more at home in Spain, than in any other region.

While, in England and the Netherlands, the surplus of one district supplies the deficiencies of another, in Spain, it is not unusual for one province to be desolated by famine, while an excessive crop in another has filled the granaries to overflowing, and made wheat comparatively worthless.

"In Spain, land is stationary, or declining with the decay of towns and villages; but near the towns and cities, the canals and railways, of the flourishing regions we have described, land rises in value with the improvement of cultivation, with the increased prices for its products, and with the progressive demand for sites for warehouses and country seats. It is enriched by its very vicinity to the centres of population, by the fertilizing materials it derives from them, whose weight and bulk forbid their carriage into remote districts. In this respect, lands in populous districts have a decided and preponderating advantage over those of the interior.

"The progress of improvements, and the growth of towns in the United States are producing the same effects we have witnessed in Europe.

"The Erie and Champlain Canals, with the application of steam to the Hudson, have created, in the last twenty years, great cities, at Buffalo, Rochester, Utica, Albany, Troy, and Brooklyn, and made New York the third, if not the second commercial city of the world.

"Singular as it may seem, many influential residents in the city of New York long opposed the Erie Canal. Her leading editors ridiculed the "big ditch" of Clinton — unable to distinguish, through the dim vista of the future, the stately warehouses, palaces, and churches, elegant avenues, and the forest of masts, with which it was to embellish the Island of Manhattan.

"Orange and Dutchess Counties anticipated that the wheat and dairy produce of the Genesee Valley would depress their farms, although more contiguous to the market of New York. On Long Island, a gentleman of my acquaintance attended an election, where his friend, the successful candidate, was chosen on the ground of his opposition to the canal.

"But the farms of Orange and Dutchess still maintain their ascendency; and such was the impulse given to Long Island, by the growth of New York after the Erie Canal had opened—such the increased demand for corn, hay, fuel, poultry, and other produce, that my acquaintance, on a second visit, found his friend again a candidate, on the ground that he had become a warm supporter of the Erie Canal.

"If canals have contributed to such results on both sides of the Atlantic, what is it reasonable to expect from the discovery of railroads?—an improvement rapidly superseding the '*ne plus ultra*' of the preceding age.

"The same power which draws a ton upon a turnpike, draws fifteen upon a level railroad, and with four-fold the speed. The railroad combines the properties of the coach, the wagon, and the race-horse. With six-fold the speed of the canal, it regards not the snows of winter, and scales mountains impervious to

canals. How far is it essential to our seaports and factories? They require a constant and uninterrupted communication, which canals cannot give, as the ice closes them nearly half the year.

"What do those factories demand? The cotton and wool of distant States and countries; the iron and coal of Pennsylvania and Cape Breton; the lumber and lime of Maine; the indigo and drugs of India; the oil of the Pacific and of Africa; and the factory girls of all New England. Obliterate the railroads, and would their business be worth pursuing?

"Obliterate the railroads, and would not half of Boston go to decay?

"At the commencement of the railroad system in New England, some fears were entertained that the effect might be injurious to the farms which encircle our metropolis.

"This opinion was countenanced, for a brief period, by the competition of the new milk farms along the line of the Boston and Worcester Railroad, with the dairies in the suburbs, and by the depression of agricultural products through the country, which followed the commercial revulsion of 1837.

"Doubtless, some changes were effected; but have not the suburban dairy farms been required for building lots, at treble prices? Are not the streets of the metropolis extended far into the country, on seven great lines, and is not land sold by the foot, more than ten miles distant from the Merchants' Exchange of Boston? and are not farms, once supposed to be ruined by the location of railroads, like the Winship and Hunnewell estates, in Brighton and Newton, at least quadrupled in their value? Have they not shown that the railroad is by no means the road to ruin? Do not milk, butter, corn, oats, pork, and beef, command remunerating prices? — the latter, in particular, when you cannot buy a sirloin in the Quincy Market under a shilling a pound! If, occasionally, produce from the interior competes in our market with that of farms in the vicinity, does it effect more than a change of use, or of the course of cultivation, and does not the increased size of the market draw in the market-wagon from a larger circle? Or, if any temporary depression occurs, are not farms in the outskirts of the counties around Boston, more elevated than the adjacent farms are depressed?

"What would be the position of the farms around Boston to-day, if our railroads and inland marts had no existence, were we to banish the hundred millions of wealth and the one hundred thousand people, which have accumulated in and around Boston since the first movement in railroads, and send them to New York and New Orleans, where they would have been planted, if such movement had not been made?

"Do the one million of tons now moved annually by the railroads out of Boston, doubling once in four years, give no impulse to industry in and around the city? or do these great works of amelioration, which bear industry, the only marketable commodity of the poor man, to the best theatre for its exercise, give no increased value to industry itself?

"Does not every house erected in and around the city, and every ship added to its rolls, require nearly an acre of land to supply its immediate demands, and is not every such house and ship a market? and are not every drain, vault and chimney, a source of fertility? Are or are not the effects which attend the progress of the railroads of Massachusetts injurious or beneficial to the county of Middlesex, and what are its position and prospects with reference to agriculture?*

"Our county of Middlesex embraces an area of 800 square miles; and its population, rapidly increasing since the census of 1840, may now be safely estimated at 120,000, or 150 to the square mile.

"The surface presents no high mountains or deep valleys; but, diversified by hill and dale, meadow and plain, and watered by four large rivers, the Merrimac, Nashua, Concord and Charles, offers numerous water-falls and sites for manufactories.

"Although modern art has to a great extent superseded modern labor, the constant progress of manufactures in Middlesex creates a demand for operatives far exceeding the home supply. Prolific as the county may be in one branch of production, that of boys and girls, all New England, and even New York, Nova Scotia and Canada, have contributed to its supply. More than twenty-six thousand operatives are now assembled in Middlesex from that wide region which lies between the Hudson, the St. Lawrence, and the sea. The annual produce of their industry appears in the cottons and woolens of Lowell, Waltham, Dracut, Billerica, Shirley and Framingham; in the ships of Medford; the lead of Concord; the soap, candles and glass of Cambridge; the cabinet-ware and leather of Charlestown, Woburn and Reading; the paper of Newton and Pepperell: the boots and shoes of Natick, Holliston, Hopkinton, Stoneham, South Reading and Malden; and the varied manufactures of many other flourishing towns

"In manufactures, Middlesex annually produces $23,000,000, and is, in this great department of industry, the leading county of the State and of the Union. The annual products of manufactures, in this single county, are more than double the average exportation of breadstuffs from the whole Union, and would pay far more than a moiety of all the flour, grain and corn exported during this season of famine. Rapid as has been the improvement of agriculture, and wide as has been its expansion in new counties and States during the last twenty years, the advance of manufactures has been quite as rapid; and if there be truth in the remark of a great British statesman, that every loom stopped in England stops half a dozen ploughs, how many American ploughs have the looms of Middlesex set in motion.

"The county of Middlesex is alike distinguished by railroad enterprise. It is

* The effect of railroads, thus far, appears to be to ameliorate the condition of those residing at a distance from seaports, and to elevate the value of their farms and products, without depressing property nearer to the great markets. The increased resources of the interior are illustrated by the fact that, in August last, nearly $3,000,000 was subscribed in the country for a short railroad from Manchester to Lawrence; while it took nearly twenty years, half a century since, to raise three-quarters of a million to construct the Middlesex Canal.

the great railroad county of the State, being intersected by the four inland lines from Boston to New York, Vermont, New Hampshire and Maine, beside various cross-routes and branches.

"The lines already constructed or chartered in this county, and sure to be finished, exceed two hundred miles in length, furnishing one mile of rails for less than four square miles of surface. So numerous have these lines become, that the average distance between them does not exceed four miles, and the population of the county live within an average distance of one mile from the iron-way.

"The combined effect of manufactures and railroads has been to furnish Middlesex with numerous markets. Within its area are the three cities of Lowell, Charlestown and Cambridge, of recent growth, with an aggregate population of sixty thousand, and at least a dozen towns with a population varying from two to five thousand each.

"Close to its borders are the embryo cities of Lawrence, Fitchburg and Nashua. Even Assabet, too, in our immediate vicinity, gives promise of a future city; while Boston, the populous and wealthy capital of New England, touches the south-eastern angle of the county.

"With such markets, and facilities for communication, which nearly equal those of the most prosperous districts of Europe, and are surpassed by none in America, what are the agricultural products of Middlesex, and how far are they capable of expansion?

"Their aggregate amount, by the census of 1845, is but $2,300,000—an amount large in itself, and yet but one-tenth of the produce of its manufactures; and may we not safely infer from this disparity, if from no other obvious facts, that the agricultural resources of the county are not yet fully developed; and that, when developed, the markets of the county require a vast amount of products not raised within its limits, and furnish an overplus of clothing and other manufactures, which may with advantage be applied to their purchase?

"If we can scan the agricultural returns of Middlesex, for the year 1845, we find its stock as follows:—

34,728 head of cattle, or	- - - - -	43 to the square mile.
9,776 head of horses, or	- - - - -	12 " " "
4,428 head of sheep, or	- - - - -	6 " " "

"Let us contrast these returns with those of England and Wales. This highly cultivated country exhibits, in an area of less than 60,000 square miles—

4,000,000 cattle, or	- - - - -	67 to the square mile.
1,500,000 horses, or	- - - - -	25 " " "
26,000,000 sheep, or	- - - - -	450 " " "

"If we reduce these to one standard, it must be apparent that Middlesex, with all her improvements, does not sustain one-half the amount of stock to the square mile which is reared by England and Wales.

"While we concede to England and Wales some superiority in soil over Mid-

dlesex, we must not forget that there are barren mountains, both in Wales and the northern districts of England; that a vast extent is there devoted to wheat and barley, to preserves for game, and ornamental parks; and may we not, then, safely infer that our county is competent, under improved husbandry, to double or treble its stock of animals?

"What are the cereal and vegetable products of Middlesex? The census of 1845 apprizes us that Middlesex produces, in round numbers:—

427,000 bushels of corn and grain, worth - - - - - - - -	$264,000
2,174,000 bushels of esculent vegetables and fruit, - - - - -	554,000
78,000 tons of hay, - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	777,000
Milk, valued at - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	153,000
Butter, valued at - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	163,000
Cheese, eggs, poultry, honey, berries, &c., - - - - - - - -	34,000
Stock sold estimated, as in England, at one-fourth of the whole,	216,000
Wood and charcoal, products of forests, - - - - - - - - -	187,000
Total, - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	$2,368,000

"May we not anticipate from improved husbandry, the increase of cattle, and consequent growth of manures, a large increase in the amount of some of these productions?

"The tables to which I have adverted, gleaned with much care from the census of 1845, are fraught with interest to the farmer of Middlesex. Let us glance at some of the varied lessons which they teach him.

"First. That the principal products of his industry, vegetables, fruit, hay, milk and fuel, or nearly three-fourths of the whole, are of such perishable or bulky character, as not to admit of easy transportation to his market towns from the remote interior.

"His close vicinity to the market enables him to supply it with the least cost, to avail of the highest prices, and to carry back to his farm a return-load of enriching substances; while the farmer of the remote interior would find his profits in a great measure absorbed in the cost of compressing of hay, the deterioration of milk and vegetables, and the increased expenses of conveying all to market. This advantage adds to the value of a Middlesex farm, and holds out to the Middlesex farmer a strong incentive to exertion.

"Second. These tables teach us that nature has peculiarly adapted Middlesex for those bulky products which are most appropriate for its position. While it is prolific in fruits, roots, fuel, grass and milk, its supplies of grain, corn, pork, wool, butter and cheese, which admit of transportation from a distance, (for the produce of many acres may be packed into a single car,) are moderate in extreme. Middlesex plies at least 400,000 spindles. She raises not one pound of cotton. Her 4,428 sheep would not supply her spindles for a day, nor furnish her population with one annual dinner of lamb and another of mutton. Her sheep, too,

are annually diminishing, giving place to milch cows and cultivation; and she must depend on the interior for both wool and mutton, both indispensable to her comfort and prosperity.

"Third. With respect to breadstuffs, Middlesex produces, annually, but 427,000 bushels of wheat, corn, rye, oats, barley, and buckwheat, not one-third enough to supply her own population, to say nothing of her adjacent markets. Her whole annual production will barely suffice to give each horse in the county half a peck of corn per day for his sustenance, and no generous or judicious farmer can think of allowing less. The annual wheat crop of Middlesex, but 1,952 bushels, would provide but one treat of doughnuts for the people of the county, and all the pork we can afford to raise will scarcely suffice to fry them and dress those fresh codfish, mackerel and halibut which Providence has placed around our shores, but denied to the prolific regions of the West.

For pork and breadstuffs, and, I may add, for butter and cheese, as the railroads are converting all Middlesex into a milk farm, the county is dependent on the remote interior.

"Let us glance for a moment at a single county of the West, about two-thirds the size of Middlesex. The county of Genesee, New York, by the census of 1840, exhibits 1,940,000 bushels of grain and corn, 154,000 sheep, and 49,000 swine. As a Middlesex farmer, I see nothing to regret in this excess, or to tempt me to exchange my acres in Middlesex for as many or more in Genesee. Nature has bestowed different blessings on different sections of the Union. If at the West she has placed her layers of limestone beneath a fertile soil, adapted it to wheat and corn, or spread her beech-nut forests over the hills to furnish mast for the swine, and created pastures congenial to the sheep, she has placed us near the ocean, the great highway of nations; she has shaped out ports and harbors for commerce; rivers to impel spindles; has clad our rocky hills with forests for timber or fuel; and, if she has planted boulders in our fields, a market exists for them in the wells, cellars and walls of our growing towns and cities. She has given us land which enlightened industry will adapt to our position, and endued us, I trust, with sufficient energy to make it available.

"Within the last twenty years agriculture has made great advances in Middlesex; meadows have been reclaimed; drains have been opened; beautiful orchards have been planted; tasteful houses and improved cottages and barns been constructed; the races of animals have been improved; the sources of fertility have been guarded; land more highly cultivated; and the society I have the honor to address has, no doubt, contributed to the progress of agriculture.

"But why should not further and more rapid progress be made, and why should not Middlesex present as bright an aspect as the most productive counties of England? Why should we not become the pattern county in agriculture as well as manufactures? We have markets for our produce nearly, if not quite equal, to those of England. The price of hay, straw, milk and vegetables here,

is quite as high as the average prices of England. In Indian corn, with its masses of fodder, which will not ripen in England, we have decided advantages. In the apple, congenial to our soil, but which does not attain perfection in England, we are also before her. In addition to all this, every frugal and industrious man may here own his farm in fee, is free from the burthen of fuedal tenures, from oppressive taxes, and poor-rates; and may worship God, educate his children, and vote according to his conscience — a privilege not always accorded to the English tenant.

"If our land be less fertile than the soil of Illinois or Wisconsin, the crop is not absorbed in the cost of transporting to market, and we have no occasion to dread the fever and ague. If our climate is harsh, the wind from the ocean invigorates and animates our frames, and our wives are not saddened in the rude cabin of the lone prairie by the remembrance of an early home. Here we have intelligence, science, capital, and the arts of life. Around us are schools and seminaries of learning for our children, and in our midst is that venerable institution, Harvard University, the mother of piety and learning, nourished by the beneficence of the honored dead.

"And Middlesex, too, has one living son who defers not his munificence until wealth loses its value; until the candle of life flickers in the socket; who, amid a career of usefulness and honor, which has signally advanced the great interests of the county, devotes a fortune to the advancement of the arts. Middlesex will alike appreciate and enjoy the noble donation of Lawrence to found a school for the practical sciences, to create engineers, miners, machinists and scientific farmers, to form ingenious heads 'that shall guide the hard hands ever ready to toil on her hard materials.'

"But while the farmer of Middlesex enjoys these advantages and incentives to exertion, does not much still remain for him to accomplish? Do we not occasionally see half-tilled fields where the plough has barely skimmed over the surface, and little or no aid has been given to nature? Does not the waving grain, by its light unfilled heads, sometimes indicate the deficiencies of the sower? Do not some mowing-fields, brown with their unprofitable herbage, and checkered with white weed, mourn the absence of plaster, compost, and ashes? And when we reflect that a single acre of rich pasture is competent to maintain a cow, is not our sympathy often excited for that useful and most respectable animal, as well as for her neglectful owner, when we see her threading her weary way through barren acres where not a single blossom of white clover perfumes the air; now roving through alder-swamps; now climbing hills covered with birches or brambles; at times lost amidst the thicket, and recognized only by the tinkling bell.

Again, let me ask, is not the county studded with deep meadows and swamps where the leaves and decaying vegetables of the country, swept down from the hills and plains by rain, have accumulated for centuries? — where the sounding rod of the engineer discovers trunks of trees at the depth of twenty or thirty feet

below the surface?—are not these mines of vegetable mould for enriching the upland?—may they not be converted into luxuriant grass-fields and pastures, almost insensible to drought, and enduring in their fertility?

"Are there not rocky hills, which have been wastefully stripped of wood unfit for cultivation, where the forest should again be tempted to rise, since it flourishes among ledges and rocks, twining its roots around them, and drawing potash from the decomposing granite? Would not such transition from a waste of rocks to wood-crowned eminences embellish the county, as well as provide timber and fuel?

"Is not the importance of this apparent when we consider the inducements offered by groves for country-seats, and remember the high prices of ship-timber, during a season in which a single white oak of Middlesex has produced $100 for timber? Neither must we forget that the locomotives which will traverse the county when the railroads which are now chartered are finished, will require the annual produce of at least 40,000 acres of forest.

"May not our nurseries and orchards be extended, and new varieties of fruit be introduced, and all our lands be more highly cultivated, with increased profit to the husbandmen?

"Are not the sewers and drains of our towns often suffered to run to waste, when thousands of acres might be fertilized by their contents?—and are not hundreds of tons of oil-cake, bones and ashes, annually shipped from the county to enrich distant shores, which could be used profitably at home? These are questions which demand the consideration of the Middlesex farmer. If he can solve these problems aright; if he can justly appreciate and avail of his position; if he will endeavor to improve it instead of complaining of the competition of those who can best furnish what he cannot well supply; if he possesses that generous spirit which delights to see others prosper while he prospers himself, a Middlesex farm offers a suitable field for his exertions.

"Does he aim at a life useful and beneficial to his race!—let him remember that every acre that he reclaims, every blade of grass that he bids to grow where none grew before, ameliorates the condition of his fellows.

"Does he aspire to wealth!—let him reflect that his gains, if less brilliant and striking than those of trade and professions, are more certain and uniform; and that gradual improvement of his estate, and the silent but continued rise in the value of property, promise eventual prosperity.

"Is he tasteful!—he will here find a theatre for taste in woods, orchards, and flowers, and the design of his buildings.

"Is he ambitious!—here are obstacles to be surmounted, subjects to be controlled, races to be improved, a kingdom in minature to be governed by wise and wholesome regulations.

"Is there anything warlike in his composition!—if his country does not de-

mand his services, let him bury his steel in the boulders, and shatter the rocks that deform his ground with gunpowder.

"Would he make conquests and achieve victories!—here weeds and water are enemies; here uncultivated plains are his Mexico, and deep fens and morasses his Texas and California; and no philanthropist, or casuist, will complain of his conquests, should he subdue them. Let him guard against the ambush of the crow, the wire-worm, the squirrel, and the fox; and repel the invasion of the blight, the white weed, and the sorrel. He shall see his battle-fields not stained with blood, but blossoming with clover; and when, in his green old age, he points out to his children his Palo Alto, Buena Vista, Cerro Gordo, and Cherubusco, and recounts his *bloodless* achievements, he shall feel greater satisfaction than if his victories had been saddened by the sacrifices and tears of thousands!"

ART. V.—AGRICULTURAL SOCIETIES,

THEIR IMPORTANCE AS AGENTS IN COLLECTING AND DISSEMINATING USEFUL FACTS.—THEIR PROPER OBJECTS ENUMERATED.—MAY BE MADE EFFICIENT MORAL AGENTS.

WHEN arranging the plan of our Journal, we kept in view the principle of doing the greatest good to the greatest number of individuals; and hence agriculture—owing to the numbers employed in it as a pursuit—was adopted as the leading subject: but we must fail in carrying out this important principle, unless our agricultural readers will aid us in the collection of facts and materials.

We may collect commercial and manufacturing statistics, from books and public journals; and may also, occasionally, glean facts in relation to *agriculture* from the same sources; but there are many important facts connected with the economy of agriculture, which rarely find a place in the journals of the west, or perhaps, of any other country. Among these, may be enumerated, the adaptation of the climate and soil of particular locations, to the different varieties of plants and fruit; and the difference in the mode of culture, which is proper to be observed in regard to any particular plant or tree, when transferred from one climate or soil to another; the relative cost of production, including land and labor; and also, the relative value of the different varieties of plants and fruits at the place where they are produced; the adaptation of the different parts of the country to the various kinds of stock; and the profits accruing from this branch of husbandry. These and many other facts of like nature, must come from the agriculturist: and to render them reliable and useful, they require to be established upon observations made through a series of years, and by more than one individual; for it may

happen, that from the variety of seasons, and of soils, as also, from a variety of treatment, the results will differ, not only in different years, but with different individuals; therefore the observations of a single individual for one, or a few years, are not to be fully relied upon.

And as the experience of every individual cannot be conveniently published, the best method of establishing agricultural facts, and of bringing them fairly before the country, is, through the agency of *agricultural societies.*

These associations are calculated to bring together the best minds of the country; and the facts observed and noted by each individual, being canvassed, and submitted to the judgment of the society, its sanction would give them credibility, and authorize their adoption by the community.

To the ordinary objects of agricultural societies, should be added that of collecting statistics; these might embrace the following subjects, viz: the quantity of land cultivated; the quantity of each variety of produce; the number and value of each variety of stock; the number of manufactories and work-shops; the number of farm laborers, mechanics, artists and merchants; and also the amount of exports and imports of the several counties. These, with many other interesting and valuable facts, might be collected with but little labor, by the members of each society; and being published in some journal of general circulation, would enable the people of every part of the country, to form a correct opinion of the quantity of the products grown each year for market, as well as for home consumption. Such information would be beneficial to every part of the country. It would be the means of keeping both the purchasers and producers advised of the extent of the supply and demand of every article. It would furnish valuable information to such as wished to emigrate to the country, and bring the advantages of every location fairly before the people. And it would also be the means of attracting mechanics and laborers to those districts where their services were most in demand; and thus promote the convenience and prosperity of all parties.

In addition to those already mentioned, many other important subjects might be conveniently and profitably embraced among the objects of agricultural societies. Among these may be mentioned that of health: the diseases common to every country, are more or less frequent, or malignant, according to location; and it is often the case, that from some local cause, a certain point may be sickly, and another within a very short distance may be quite healthy. A few years of observation in regard to the causes of disease, would enable the people to indicate and select the more healthy locations; and thus they would escape from much bodily suffering, as well as the loss of labor and the payment of physicians. The number of schools, and the number of children attending them, in each county, would also constitute an important item in the statistics of the country: nor should religious statistics be neglected. In fine, agricultural societies, if directed to proper objects, are susceptible of being made most efficient literary and moral agents, as well as the promoters of agricultural prosperity.

We have only enumerated a few of the benefits which might be made to flow from these associations: there are many others which will doubtless suggest themselves to the mind of the reader; and we respectfully urge upon each one, to give the subject a fair and favorable consideration. We promise to do all in our power, to facilitate the proper objects of these societies, and shall at all times be pleased to make our Journal the organ of their proceedings.

We offer furthermore, to furnish every Agricultural Society in this, or either of the adjacent States with a copy of our Journal free of charge, (postage excepted) and will forward the same to the address of such officers of said societies as they may advise, so long as our Journal shall continue to be published.

ART. VI.—PIT COAL.

COMPARISON BETWEEN THE COAL FIELDS OF THE UNITED STATES AND OTHER COUNTRIES — PRICES OF COAL IN GREAT BRITAIN — THICKNESS AND DEPTH OF COAL SEAMS.

WE published in our first number, an article respecting the coal mines of the United States, and also one upon the relative cost of steam and water power; the former was taken from the St. Louis Union, and the latter from the Louisville Journal — both over the signature of "S". — but at the time, we were not aware that the article upon coal was a portion of a more extensive treatise upon the same subject. A few days since we received a well written pamphlet of forty-four pages, printed at Louisville, Kentucky, in which these articles are embraced. We are sorry to perceive that the article which we published was the latter part of the treatise; but as this arrangement of the subject will not materially lessen its value, we conclude that we cannot better serve our readers at present than to give them the first part, so that they may have the entire subject before them:

"If, of the two motive powers, water and steam, the latter is not only more convenient but less expensive, it is important to know where steam can be produced at the least cost.

"Were I to state, briefly, that our Western coal fields are more extensive, richer in quality, and far more accessible than any other known; that, on the Ohio, we can obtain coal at four cents per bushel as good as that which sells at sixteen cents per bushel at Manchester, England, I might not be believed. We have heard and read so much of the enormous quantity of coal used in and exported from England, of the wealth it has produced, and of the dense population on and around her coal measures, that we infer that the English coal seams are of greater purity, of vast thickness, and more cheaply worked than in any other country. Text books and Encyclopædias give us very few details of collieries;

and the following facts, which I have gathered from books devoted exclusively to the subject, and from topographical works, may be of interest, while they sustain my position.

"The only coal measures of practical interest to us are those of France, Belgium, Great Britain, Nova Scotia, and the United States. There are indications of coal in about thirty of the departments of France—that of Aveyron, near Spain, is said to be the most extensive, but, from the character of the country, or some unknown cause, is least worked. The latest authority I can find, gives only 7,000 persons employed in all the departments in the coal mines, and the supply of coals for the French steam marine is obtained from Belgium and England. There is a bed of coal, about 700 feet beneath the surface, extending from Valenciennes, France, under Mons and Namur to Liege, in Belgium. This is 150 miles in length, and six miles in width, and about 35,000 colliers are there employed. The quality of the coal is inferior, and its cost and distance from the sea prevent its coming in competition with the English coal.

"The coal beds of Ireland and Scotland are, on the whole, inferior to those of England, but have the same general characteristics.

"The coal measures of England are west of a straight line drawn from Gosport to the mouth of the river Tees; the most important being on the British channel, in South Wales; in Flintshire, North Wales; in Lancaster and Cumberland, on the Irish Sea; Durham and Northumberland, on the North Sea; and in Staffordshire and West Ruding, in central England. The coal in South Wales is only used on the spot for the smelting and manufacture of iron, in the smelting of copper ore brought from Cornwall, and in manufacture of tin plate. The quantity thus used is about 40,000,000 bushels per annum. The Lancaster and Cumberland mines supply manufacturing cities in these counties, Liverpool and other cities on the channel, and a large quantity required for exportation to France, the West Indies, the Mediterranean, Ireland, and the United States. I may here remark that this coal (known as "Liverpool," "Orell," &c., in the Eastern and New Orleans markets,) will continue to be imported by us, at the present duty, as long as it will bring from twenty to twenty-five cents per bushel; but, at this rate, it cannot pay freight. It is used as ballast, and of course the price at which it is sold, is no criterion of its cost.

"The Durham and Northumberland, known generally as the Newcastle, colleries supply the western and southern sections of England, and the demand in France, Belgium and the Baltic; the chief market being London. Of the quantity required in that city, some idea can be formed from the consumption of nearly seven millions of bushels in her gas works.

"The coal of central England is used in Birmingham, Stafford, Sheffield, and other manufacturing cities. Edinburg is supplied with coal from the vicinity; and the extensive cotton manufactories of Glasgow and Paisley are also furnished from collieries in the immediate district.

"In stating the *cost* of coal to the manufacturing consumer, and for domestic purposes, this explanation is necessary: It is of kinds and names unknown to us. Seventy distinct varieties are sent to London, and the screened and the small coal, the slack and the cinder of the same variety are of different prices; often several varieties are combined, and the prices are as numerous as the compounds. Bovey coal is bituminous wood, holding an intermediate place between peat and pit coal; yet it is worked an hundred feet 'below the grass.' Sulphurious coal is dangerous to work; culm is of but little more value and neither are used when better coal can be had. The Orell and Cannel varieties are the best for manufacturing purposes, and come nearest, in appearance and value, to our Western coal. At New Orleans, for manufacturing purposes, the Pittsburg coal is, on the whole, preferred to them; at the Boston gas works the Indiana coal has been tested with and found superior to them; and in the accurate and numerous experiments made by Prof. W. R. Johnson, under direction of Congress, both Pittsburg and Indiana coal are proved superior to the best Liverpool and Newcastle coal for the generation of steam. When we shall separate the lamina of our coal seams, we shall probably find all the best varieties for the manufacture of iron known in England.

"At Sheffield the prices of household coal (a mixture of hard, small or *sleck*, and round or *cobblings*) is near seven cents per bushel; the strong, clear and hard kinds used for iron work, about fourteen cents. The immense consumption of coal in Manchester is supplied from collieries within eight miles, and at the cost of from six cents to fifteen cents. At Birmingham the price ranges from six cents to sixteen cents. The Leeds coal is inferior, and sells at about seven cents. At Liverpool the average cost of *small* coal is quoted at ten cents, and of *hard* at thirteen and three-fourths of a cent. At the Staffordshire potteries the price is occasionally less than six cents; but the coal seam is so soft that only one-third is mined.

"The London prices quoted are: 'Hetton' and 'Walsend' 25 1-10 cents, and Newcastle, first and second qualities, average twenty-two and a half cents. These high prices, however, are caused by city charges and transportation.

"By the term 'hard' coal is meant the hard layers of bituminous coal.

"I do not find any tabular statements of cost except in connection with gas works. Here, generally, the best Liverpool, Wigan and Cannel is preferred; and I give the table below, taken from report of J. Hedley, to the House of Commons in 1837:

	Price per Ton.	*Price per Bushel.*	*Description.*
Birmingham,	11s. 10d.	$0.108	Bromwich.
Staffordshire,	9s. 3d.	.095	do.
Macclesfield,	8s.	.074	Common. [6d.
Stockport,	15s.	.136	Half cannel, a 19s.
Manchester,	15s. 2d.	.138	Mixed.
Liverpool,	18s.	.163	Cannel.

	Price per Ton.	*Price per Bushel.*	*Description.*
Bradford,	8s. 6d.	.077	3 sorts used.
Leeds,	8s.	.074	One-third cannel.
Sheffield,	7s. 9d.	.072	3 sorts used cannel [a 16s.
Leicester,	13s. 6d.	.119	Derbyshire soft coal
Derby,	13s. 6d.	.119	do.
Nottingham,	13s. 6d.	.119	do.
London,	17s.	.154	Newcastle.
		$1,447	

Which gives an average of over eleven cents per bushel. If we take the average of coal, equal in quality to Pittsburgh, the average price at the great manufacturing cities of Birmingham, Manchester, Leeds and Sheffield, is from fourteen to fifteen cents per bushel. Twenty-six bushels and twenty-four pounds of our coal make a ton. I give twenty-six and a half bushels to the ton. The respective weights per cubic feet are:

Liverpool, - - - - - - - - - - -	78.89
Newcastle, - - - - - - - - - - -	78.54
Pittsburg, - - - - - - - - - - -	78.37
Cannelton, Indiana, - - - - - - - -	79.54

according to Prof. Johnson's report. The advantage of the calculation, therefore, is against us. And yet, in ignorance of the facts, many of our men of capital and enterprise doubt whether we can enter into competition with English manufactures, because of the cheapness of English coal!

"THICKNESS AND DEPTH OF THE COAL SEAMS.—*South Wales.*—The beds have been worked 2,100 feet below the surface, although generally it has not been found necessary to go deeper than 480 feet. There are twelve seams between three and five feet; eleven from eighteen inches to three feet, and several, which are not worked, from twelve to eighteen inches thick.

"*Whitehaven.*—The Howgill mine is 600 feet below the bed of the sea, and carried 3,000 feet from the shore.

"*Dunham.*—The most important colliery is the Montagu, three and a half miles above Newcastle. Of this, the Benwell main is four feet nine inches thick—three hundred and five feet deep. The Beaumont seam three feet four inches thick—four hundred and nine feet deep. Low main two feet eleven inches thick—two hundred and twenty-three feet deep. Low low main two feet ten inches thick—eight hundred and eighty-two feet deep. Of the superincumbent mass, three hundred and one feet is Whinstone and post; the first of which is so hard that angular fragments will cut glass; the latter is a hard kind of freestone suitable for grindstones.

"*Cumberland.*—'King's Pit,' near Whitehaven; one seam is twelve feet thick—seven hundred and twenty-six feet deep. Two seams two feet thick—

nine hundred feet deep. Three seams six feet one inch thick—one thousand two hundred and ninety-three feet deep.

"*Ashby.*—At a depth of four hundred and seventy-five feet, five beds of different qualities are worked, averaging about three feet in thickness.

"*Sheffield.*—The principal seams worked near Sheffield are: 1. Seam four feet thick—depth not stated. 2. Seam two feet three inches thick, and seventy-eight below the first. 3. Seam three feet nine inches thick—one hundred and ninety-eight feet below the first. 4. Seam four feet six inches thick—four hundred and ninety-eight feet below the first. 5. Seam five feet thick—one thousand and ninety-eight feet deep. 6. Seam six feet thick—depth not stated. Of these, the second seam is largely worked, and known as furnace coal. The third has seven lamina of different qualities. The fourth is, in working, separated into eight layers, the lowest portion being Cannel coal, and used exclusively in the Sheffield gas works. The fifth, or 'manor seam,' has fifteen layers, including two of soil. The sixth, or 'Sheffield bed,' has six or eight varieties, some abounding in iron pyrites.

"*Northumberland.*—The shallowest pit is one hundred and thirty-eight feet deep, and the lowest twelve hundred and eighty feet perpendicular; of which the shaft alone cost about $350,000.

"At Monkwearmouthshire, the boring commenced in 1826, and had reached, in 1835, as low as fifteen hundred and ninety feet, passing through but a single available seam, at a depth of fifteen hundred and seventy-eight feet; and, indeed, none other was looked for under eighteen hundred feet deep. In working this shaft about $500,000 had been expended!

"In the 'Alfred' pit, at Jarrow, there is a thirty horse steam engine, erected at a depth of seventy-eight feet below the surface, and used in raising the coals up a shaft which unites with the workings carried out two hundred and seventy feet deeper still. At this profound depth, another engine draws the coals up an inclined plane that lies coincident with the dip of the strata.

"At the 'Swan Banks' colliery, near Halifax, the 'hard band' coal seam two feet three inches thick, is four hundred and forty-two feet deep, and the 'soft bed' coal one foot five inches thick, is worked eight hundred and twelve feet below the surface.

"The foregoing are about the average value of the coal beds in England. The thickest seam is that called the 'Ten-Yard Vein,' near Dudley. This, however, as is the case in all very thick beds, is difficult to work. The coal is tender, the roof is not firm, and only about one-third of the coal can be taken out. Besides, thus far, no machinery has been found in detaching blocks of coal from the mass. Where the ordinary pick is insufficient, gunpowder is used, and, wherever this is required, Davy's safety lamp would be superfluous. The seams worked at the least expense, are from five to eight feet thick. Of the average depth and thickness of the coal in England, I have no precise data. It is safe, however, to esti-

mate the depth at between six hundred and seven hundred feet, and the thickness from three to three and a half feet.

"The cost of reaching and working these mines is enormous; cheap labor and capital only could sustain it. Where else but in England would a capitalist persevere for nine years, and expend half a million of dollars without any return, on the judgment of a 'coal viewer' or geologist?

"The labor and cost of raising the coal from such depths is but slight when compared with that required to drain and ventilate the mines. Drainage is sometimes effected by 'adits' or drifts. The Cornish adit, for example, extends its ramifications about 26,000 fathoms, and empties into Falmouth harbor. The adit of the Duke of Bridgewater's mines, at Worsley, is a prodigious work, about thirty miles long, and navigable for barges. But, generally, the water is taken from the mines by the use of the steam engine. For this purpose the 'South Hetton' colliery has three engines of one hundred horse power each, and one of three hundred horse power; of the latter, the beam contains eighty-one thousand eight hundred and forty pounds of iron, makes fifteen strokes per minute, and raises eight hundred pounds of water at each stroke. The cost of this engine was £10,000. And yet coal mines are often inundated, and sometimes thereby rendered useless.

"The process of ventilating the mines is complicated and costly, and so imperfect that the mines are never entirely safe from the deadly effects of the fire and choke damp. After the awful tragedies at the Pitt mines, it seems strange that man should risk a similar catastrophe, but, in England, life is as cheap as capital or labor.

"I cannot, without extending this paper to a great length, enumerate even all the important obstacles in the way of the English collier, but cannot omit reference to 'dikes.'

"'Dikes,' says Mr. Coneybeare, 'are an endless source of difficulty and expense to the coal owner, throwing the seams out of their level [at Clackmanshire 1,230 feet] and filling the mines with water and fire damp.' And yet, Prof. Buckland thanks God for so placing these 'faults;' 'for, without them,' says he, 'the mines could not be drained by the powers of the most approved machinery.'

"The statesmen of England attribute her great prosperity and power to her coal fields, and Parliaments have anxiously inquired of the surveyor and geolist whether the supply would last two or three thousand years longer. They may, in time, hear of our vast beds of the same mineral, of superior purity, without a 'fault;' which is found by drifts and not shafts; which require no artificial means of drainage or ventilation; in whose veins life is safe and labor not irksome; and which underlies a soil of unsurpassed fertility; and they may remember the fate of Thebes, Athens, and Rome, and reflect that no amount of capital, no preponderance of power can long sustain a city or State when competing with superior *natural* advantages elsewhere.

"*Nova Scotia.*—The Albion mines are in Pictou, on the northern side of Nova Scotia, and eight and a half miles distant from the town of the same name. The coal is transported the whole distance by railroad, or by the river barges. The strata are similar to those of Staffordshire. The Sydney and Bridgeport mines are on the eastern side of the island of Cape Breton. The coal in this field is similar in quality to that at Newcastle. Railroads are required here, and also steam 'tugs' to tow coal vessels in and out of the harbors. The shallowest pit described is one hundred and eighty feet deep; as the dip of the veins is rapid and towards the sea, the workings will continually increase in depth. The seams, perhaps, are not as thick as those of England, and, judging from the price at which the coal is sold in New England, the cost of working them is not less.

"Martin, in his 'Colonial Library,' states that all these mines are held by the 'General Mining Association' as tenants of the crown and the late Duke of York, with a capital of $2,000,000, chiefly invested in boats, machinery, and other means of carrying on its mining operations. The nearest and only great market for this coal is New England, where its price ranges from twenty to thirty cents per bushel, after paying an import duty of about forty-five cents per ton. Before I touch on the coal measures of the United States, I must ask space to make a few quotations from various writers on the importance and value of this mineral.

"'It cannot here be necessary to point out the many advantages which we derive from the possession of our coal mines, the sources of greater riches than ever issued from the mines of Peru, or from the diamond grounds at the base of the Neela Mulla mountains. But for our command of fuel, the inventions of Watt and Arkwright would have been of small account; our iron mines must long since have ceased to be worked, and nearly every important branch of manufacture which we now possess must have been rendered impracticable, or, at best, have been conduceed upon a comparatively insignificant scale.'—*Porter's Progress of the Nation.*

"'The ascent of Mount Blanc from Chamouni is considered, and with justice, as the most toilsome feat that a strong man can execute in two days. The combustion of two pounds of coal would place him on the summit.'—*Sir J. F. W. Hershel.*

"'The amount of work now done by machinery, moved by steam, in England has been supposed to be equivalent to that of between three and four hundred millions of men by direct labor.'

"Dr. Thompson says that in the coal fields on the north and northwest of Birmingham, the loss in mining, owing to the tender nature of the substance itself, and the comparatively trifling demand for small coal, amounts to about two-thirds of he entire steam. In allusion to this statement, and the efforts of a celebrated philosopher to economize the application of fuel, Mr. Tredgold exclaims: "'The waste, which Count Rumford lamented so much, dwindles to nothing in comparison with the wholesale destruction of a valuable material. Are you a manufac-

turer? Look around and see what generates the power which enables you to compete with other nations. Are you a philanthropist? Consider that a substance is destroyed which would add comfort to millions of your fellow creatures; consider the risk at which it is procured; the number of lives that are lost by explosions, and the misery these catastrophes create. Surely, some means of rendering that portion useful, which is now wasted, may be devised.'

"'In a work, lately published by a Spaniard, there is a comparison between the produce of the gold and silver mines in America and the coal mines of England, in which the author exhibits a balance in favor of the latter of no less than 229,500,000 francs annually.'

"'Pennsylvania realizes from her coal mines an annual income of four and a half millions, and Great Britain of one hundred and ninety-two millions of dollars.' —*Hitchcock's Geology, Mass.* 1841.

"My last quotation is from the splendid speech of Mr. Webster.

"'It [steam] is on the rivers, and the boatman may repose on his oars; it is in the highways, and begins to exert itself along the courses of land conveyances; it is at the bottom of mines, a thousand (he might have said 1,800) feet below the earth's surface; it is in the mill, and in the workshops of the trades. It rows, it pumps, it excavates, it carries, it draws, it lifts, it hammers, it weaves, it spins, it prints."

The writer says of the great Illinois coal field, that "in the opinion of geologists, the whole field is what is termed a 'basin,' and, on the Ohio, is lowest about Henderson. Probably there are only two strata that are worth working. The lower, in geological position, is seen at Cannelton and Trade Water; the upper at Bon Harbor; each of these, at different points, is from 3 to 10 feet in thickness.

"On the eastern side the dip is westwardly about fifty feet in a mile; on the western side the dip is estwardly, but how rapid is not known. Near the Mississippi river the lower strata is said to be very sulphurious.

"The positions where it has been worked, and where the coal appears to be of an excellent quality and convenient thickness, are at Cannelton, and on the Wabash and White rivers, in Indiana; about one hundred miles up the Green river, at Bon Harbor, and on the Tradewater river, in Kentucky; and on the Saline and Big Muddy rivers in Illinois."

ART. VII.—HOPS.

THE QUANTITY CONSUMED IN ST. LOUIS. — THE CULTIVATION OF HOPS IN THE WEST.

WE have bestowed much labor in ascertaining the quantity of hops consumed by the breweries in St. Louis, and have learned from the proprietors of these establishments that they purchased last year, 71,700 pounds. We have not been able to ascertain the quantity used by the bakers, distillers, &c., but we imagine

that there can be little less than 100,000 pounds of hops annually consumed in this city, and the demand is rapidly increasing.

We have also ascertained that much the larger portion of these hops are of eastern growth; and to this fact we desire to call the attention of our agricultural readers.

In a country like this, where over-production is so liable to occur in every staple, it would seem extremely absurd that we should continue to import from a great distance, and at great expense, an article which can be as easily produced here as in any part of the world.

We learn from the brewers that they consider the properties of the western hops superior to the eastern; but, owing to the manner of gathering and preparing them for market, the eastern article is preferred. We perceive from the St. Louis Price Current of January 15th, that prime eastern hops were worth from 14 to 15 cents, and western do. 11 to 14 cents. This difference of price is doubtless owing to the cause above mentioned.

If the New England farmer can afford to produce hops on land of many times the market value of land in the west, and where one bushel of corn is worth three times as much money; and, in addition to this, transport the article more than two thousand miles by ocean and river navigation, it would seem to place the matter beyond doubt, that the growth of hops must be highly profitable in Missouri. It is true that the western market is limited, and might be readily overstocked; but why not produce for exportation? It seems to us, upon comparing the elements that enter into the cost of production in the two countries, that we ought to supply New England with hops, rather than to import the article from there for our own consumption.

We profess to know nothing of the culture, or of the manner of preparing hops for use. We therefore invite our agricultural readers to inquire into the subject, and to afford us such practical information in regard to the culture and preparation of the article for use, as they may possess.

ART. VIII.—MANUFACTURES IN ST. LOUIS.

GRIMSLEY'S DRAGOON, OR MILITARY SADDLE-TREE.

THE nature of this invention consists of an improvement upon the pommel, and cantle made use of in the construction of the French Hussar, or old Dragoon Regulation Saddle-tree, and in the combination, without metalic fastening, of the French Hussar or Dragoon Regulation style of pommel, and cantle with winding side bars, of such a form, and arranged in such a manner, that they will bear equally and uniformly on the back of a horse or mule, thereby superseding the

necessity of a pad. The timber of which this saddle-tree is constructed, is ash, beech or maple, and it is fastened together by means of a raw hide covering. The front of the pommel is shaved to a level surface, with a slight curvature at the upper end, giving the head an inclination to the front, while on the inside it is worked off each way from the centre, giving it a convex form. The cantle is worked out each way from the centre, on the inside, bringing it to a concave form, and affording the rider an upright posture, and an easy seat in the saddle. From two and a half to three inches from the upper end of the cantle it is curved to the rear, while the rear surface of the same is brought to a convex form.

The side bars, the most important part of the tree, are nineteen to twenty inches long, and are made from timber in the rough state, from three to four inches thick. The two ends where the pommel and cantle are joined to the same, are shaved to a smooth surface. The space between is so formed as to fit the seat of the rider, and afford ease to, and a close application of, the inside muscles of the thighs to the saddle, and the sides of the horse. The under side of the side bars are worked off, and so formed as to fit the back of a horse below the great leaders, and a sufficiently winding and oval surface is given to them, to insure a uniform, even pressure on the back, from front to rear. They are from five to seven inches wide, and from one-fourth to one inch in thickness, An aperture is made through the upper end of the pommel, through which a strap passes, to fasten the coat or other luggage of the Dragoon. There is also an aperture in the upper end of the cantle, to which the valise is suspended, which holds it above the back of the horse, and prevents it from chafing or bruising his loins. From all we can learn of the construction and form of this saddle-tree, it combines the strength and durability of the Spanish, the grace and elegance of the French, and the handsome proportions and finish given to it by the inventor in this city. We learn that the saddles made on these saddle-trees were first constructed by Mr. Grimsley some two years and a half since, and have, since that time, been introduced into every arm of the mounted service of the country. Its great celebrity, and complete adaptation to the purposes for which it was intended, caused the Quarter Master General of the United States army to order samples to be forwarded to Washington, where a board of officers, of high rank and great practical experience, was ordered to convene to decide upon the merits of the equipments of Mr. G., and other samples which were submitted for their inspection. The result of their deliberations was the adoption of every part of the saddle offered by Mr. Grimsley, and of the whole of his equipments except the bridle bit, which was submitted by Lieut. Col. May, of the 2d Dragoons. The improvements in this article are of essential service to the country, and the one under consideration has been tested thoroughly by some of the oldest and ablest officers known to the Dragoon service. Amongst the samples which were in the office and under consideration, was the Spanish, French, the Ringgold, and Sam Walker saddles, with several other specimens, but none were considered equal to the sample from

St. Louis. It was, therefore, adopted, and is now the regular army saddle for the mounted service of the United States.

The business capacity and enterprise of Col. Grimsley might well place him at the head of his profession in this, or any other country. His establishment on Main street, in this city, in regard to both extent and arrangement, is unequalled by any thing of the kind that we have ever visited.

Here he gives constant employment to from sixty to seventy hands, and so complete is his supervision, that we have never heard of a bad job that was turned out from his establishment. And more than this, his enterprise is not limited to the building up of his own establishment merely, but acting upon the true principles of political economy, he delights to encourage his neighbors, and employs St. Louis mechanics to manufacture the stirrup irons, bridle bits, and other hardware used in his business. Such individuals well deserve the highest degree of prosperity that talent and industry can impart.

BLOW'S WHITE LEAD AND OIL FACTORY.

The following statement in relation to this extensive and flourishing establishment, has been furnished by Mr. HENRY T. BLOW, the enterprising proprietor.

The establishment is situated at the corner of Clark Avenue and Tenth Street, and fronts on the latter one hundred and thirty-five feet.

The machinery is propelled by a steam engine of thirty horse power.

There is consumed in this establishment annually

16,000 pigs of lead,
98,000 bushels of flax seed and castor beans,
2,000 barrels of vinegar,

and fuel, including coal, wood, bean hulls, &c., equal to

40,000 bushels of good coal.

The establishment gives employment to sixty-five hands, and produces annually about 50,000 kegs of white lead, 4,000 barrels of oil, and 350 casks of red lead and lytharge, and pays for labor, fuel and insurance, $22,000, and for stock generally, from $140,000 to $175,000.

The work at the establishment is carried on both day and night for six days in the week, and has seldom stopped for the last three years, except to repair accidents, and for the holydays. The oil and lead manufactured at this establishment is sold in almost every city in the Union.

"The St. Louis Chemical Works" carried on by Mr. SAMUEL CUTHBERT, produced last year about 20,000 kegs of white lead, and has machinery and capacity of buildings sufficient to turn out, perhaps three times that quantity.

BREWERIES.

This is a branch of business which has greatly increased within the last two or three years. We have now in the city sixteen breweries; which, according

L. of C.

to information obtained from the proprietors, consumed last year 103,100 bushels of barley, and about 71,700 pounds of hops.* The following table will show the amount consumed by each establishment:

Names.	No. bu. Barley.	No. lbs. Hops.	Names.	No. bu. Barley.	No. lbs. Hops.
St. Louis,	20,000	15,000	City,	14,000	8,000
Western,	6,000	4,000	Union,	9,000	6,000
Fulton,	14,000	6,000	Phœnix,	8,000	5,600
Geo. Busch,	8,000	2,500	Washington,	7,000	5,000
Camp Spring,	8,500	6,000	Rocky Branch,	4,000	1,500
Mound,	6,000	6,000	Franklin,	1,200	600
National,	2,500	2,000	Oregon,	500	1,200
Lafayette,	2,500	1,500	Eagle,	2,000	800
	67,500	43,000		45,700	28,700

* A small quantity of hops purchased was sold for other purposes.

DISTILLERIES.

There are three distilleries in the city, which, according to information obtained from the proprietors, consume in the aggregate about six hundred and eighty bushels of grain per diem, or over two hundred thousand bushels per annum.

Mr. Richard W. Ulrici consumes at his establishment two thousand bushels of corn per week, and employs twenty hands, and makes two hundred barrels of whisky per week, besides feeding two hundred and fifty head of cattle. He has made arrangements to feed and fatten four thousand head of hogs, which he desires to purchase during the season, to which fact he calls the attention of those who may have stock for sale.

W. C. Jackson & Co. use at the distillery about two hundred bushels of grain per day; and the Rocky Branch Distillery use about one hundred and fifty bushels. There is also an extensive distillery on the opposite side of the river.

ART. IX.—ST. LOUIS AND CINCINNATI RAILROAD.

The following preamble and resolutions adopted by a convention held not long since at Indianopolis, Indiana, show the laudable interest which our eastern neighbors take in this important work:

"WHEREAS, public attention has of late been directed to the importance of constructing a railway between the city of St. Louis on the Mississippi river and Cincinnati on the Ohio, whereby in course of time a continuous railway communication will be formed with the Eastern Atlantic cities; and whereas, the right of way for such purpose has already been granted by the States of Ohio and Indiana under liberal charters passed by the respective Legislatures; and whereas, the Terre Haute and Richmond Railroad Company, created under the charter of the last Legislature of Indiana, has already been organized, be it

"*Resolved*, That this Convention does not doubt the practicability and ultimate

completion of this great public improvement, passing, as it does, through one of the richest agricultural regions in the world—connecting the commerce of the East and West—bringing into the immediate proximity the chief commercial cities of the Union, and promising the richest returns for their investment of capital.

"*Resolved*, That a committee of seven, (of whom the President of this Convention shall be one,) be appointed by the chair to prepare and publish an address setting forth to the country the character, importance and practicability of this work — the commercial and agricultural resources of the country through which it passes — the great advantages it will secure to the country and to capitalists, and such other matters connected with it as may be of general importance, and that the same be prepared and published at as early a period as possible after the adjournment of this convention."

ART. X.—PRODUCT OF THE LAKE SUPERIOR COPPER MINES.

Colonel D. R, McNair, as we learn from the "*Lake Superior News*," the organ of the mining interest in that region, has made up his report to the 30th of September, 1847, which exhibits returns of ores and metals raised, and shipments out of the district for smelting, from the commencement of operations, as follows:

Companies.	Ores and Metals raised. Pounds.	Am't. Shipped. Pounds.
Lake Superior Company,	1,114,841	34,441
Eagle Harbor Company,	321,000	81,164
Copper Falls Company,	317·050	15,263
Pittsburgh and Boston Copper Harbor Co.,	7,283,340	1,497,481
Northwest Company,	190,000	7.264
Lac La Belle Company,	200,000	1,329
Suffolk Company,	300,000	383
Algonquin Company,	120,000	11,135
Mendenhall Company,	80,000	4,049
All others making reports,	1,327,969	40,296
Total,	10,244,200	1,693,805

Leaving the balance of 8,550,395 lbs. of mineral to be smelted in the mining district.

It is further stated in the "Lake Superior News," that "the receipts, since the transfer of the charge of these lands from the War Department to the Treasury Department, exceed, by a very considerable amount, every expense attendant upon their management and the collection of rents; and it is computed that, with what will be raised by the 30th September, 1848, at the rates of this year, the rents will amount to some $25,000 over and above expenses. There are many companies who have commenced mining, with good shows of mineral and prospects of success, who are not as yet sufficiently advanced to make returns; and a great many who were doing well have turned their forces to building, opening of roads, clearing the land, and raising potatoes, until they could erect smelting works, four of which are going up, and will be in operation the ensuing summer—one on the Ontonagon, one at Eagle River, one at Dead River, and one at Isle Royal. It should also be mentioned that explorations have been carried on extensively, with the anticipation of taking up these lands when they come into market, and that the discoveries surpass all previous anticipations. Gen. E. J. Roberts, assistant agent United Stafes mineral lands, will, we understand, make his head quarters for the winter at Eagle River, the Ontonagon, or Fort Wilkins, where the business of the agency will be transacted until the re-opening of navigation.

ART. XI.—COMMERCE OF ST. LOUIS.

We are indebted to the St. Louis Price Current for the following statistical tables of the commerce of St. Louis. The editor of this valuable paper is entitled to much credit for his industry and enterprise, in collecting and collating the facts connected with the commerce of the west.

IMPORTS INTO ST. LOUIS FOR FIVE YEARS,

Commencing January 1, 1843.

ARTICLES.	1847.	1846.	1845.	1844.	1843.
Bacon ..... casks	12,472	12,631	8,620	11,208	15,555
Beef ..... bbls	10,254	12,346	7,029	4,172	11,283
Bagging ..... pieces	1,432	3,299	6,036	4,594	3,270
Bale Rope ..... coils	10,798	5,802	9,229	14,316	9,622
Barley ..... sacks	35,527	13,212	15,128	7,005	3,114
Buffalo Robes ..... bales	7,782	5,976	3,567	3,598	7,787
Beeswax ..... bbls	759	532	531	577	73
Beeswax ..... sacks	798	827	599	928	832
Corn ..... sacks	478,449	352,381	44,341	25,270	32,707
Coffee ..... bags	77,767	60,450	46,802	43,476	40,297
Flour ..... bbls	435,019	223,670	132,196	96,203	80,479
Fish ..... bbls	3,484	1,572	4,006	1,970	1,386
Fish ..... kits	2,734	2,620	1,492	1,642	1,758
Hemp ..... bales	81,525	34,738	30,985	62,732	37,553
Hides ..... ——	71,877	84,980	72,918	42,802	45,814
Iron ..... bundles	15,695	22,651	13,238	11,647	10,314
Iron ..... bars	91,513	63,712	59,697	57,316	26,855
Iron ..... tons	17,016	1,716	964	880	1,089
Lead ..... pigs	767 656	763,489	757,908	621,900	584,131
Cotton Yarn ..... bxs, bgs	15,147	17,726	15,322	13,716	11,347
Lard ..... bbls	31,005	24,542	8,502	15,792	13,844
Lard ..... kegs	12,247	19,351	5,362	19,709	24,337
Liquors ..... casks	3,192	3,122	2,638	1,752	1,505
Molasses ..... bbls	21,554	16,774	11,876	12,068	4,139
Nails ..... kegs	22,789	33,303	14,831	23,183	26,895
Oats ..... sacks	101,203	59,620	21,969	21,916	14,212
Oil, Lard ..... bbls	478	274	292	688	1,154
Oil, Linseed ..... bbls	485	866	810	449	625
Oil, Castor ..... bbls	332	230	48	97	273
Oil, Sperm ..... casks	186	169	169	81	190
Pork ..... bbls	45,922	15,613	16,199	46,836	19,805
Pig Metal ..... tons	2,263	2,504	1,303	1,110	2,041
Rice ..... tierces	762	8,666	708	518	341
Sugar ..... hhds	12,661	13,898	10,237	10,738	10,470
Sugar ..... bbls	4,083	4,917	3,193	2,679	1,953
Sugar ..... bxs	15,628	1,090	1,053	1,607	624
Salt, T. I. ..... sacks	22,983	15,823	20,278	49,683	34,569
Salt, G. A. ..... sacks	92,809	107,581	82,520	86,001	65,574
Salt, Kanawha ..... bbls	44,380	62,189	21,684	14,277	37,350
Salt, L. B. ..... sacks	17,632	28,478	20,387	17,454	30,300
Spirits Turpentine ..... bbls	619	740	317	419	535
Skins, deer ..... bales	2,697	1,609	1,862	1,283	1,103
Seed, flax ..... bbls	4,992	4,081	2,045	4,273	3,629
Tobacco ..... hhds	10,935	8,767	12,856	10,013	20,668
Tobacco ..... bxs	9,592	6,676	7,372	4,823	6,307
Tallow ..... bbls	2,217	1,754	1,705	5,331	974
Tar ..... bbls and kegs	5,656	5,235	4,942	5,141	3,455
Wool ..... bales	2,107	1,903	1,899	1,377	——
Whisky ..... bbls	30,247	29,832	29,445	24,147	18,605
Wheat ..... bbls	97,123	81,350	77,150	54,887	70,777
Wheat ..... sacks	1,222,433	743,491	382,323	257,632	131,427

EXPORTS FROM ST. LOUIS, FOR FIVE YEARS,

Commencing January 1, 1843.

ARTICLES.		1847.	1846.	1845.	1844.	1843.
Bacon, ass'd,	casks	14,085	13,641	7,628	14,953	17,676
Bacon,	bbls	4,092	4,916	7,788	6,207	1,470
Bacon, bulk,	tons	675	569	148	292	302
Beef,	bbls	12,798	20,113	5,324	5,694	11,288
Bagging,	pieces	3,363	4,784	8,182	4,248	5,007
Bale Rope,	coils	12,632	10,016	12,896	22,431	15,490
Beeswax,	bbls	624	913	1,219	1,576	1,145
Beans,	bbls	4,490	4,408	2,170	1,448	1,327
Buffalo Robes,	bales	3,879	3,630	2,716	7,404	8,141
Corn,	sacks	395,683	243,026	23,478	25,191	21,605
Flour,	bbls	448,614	359,858	202,790	130,274	123,977
Hides,	——	73,586	44,962	50,828	57,220	38,175
Hemp,	bales	65,752	31,352	29,604	52,654	28,704
Lead,	pigs	591,791	663,505	637,033	553,719	538,762
Lead, bar,	boxes	3,136	2,932	1,850	4,442	2,624
Lard,	bbls	39,513	26,412	13,318	25,127	22,187
Lard,	kegs	21,344	32,729	15,691	36,410	27,790
Oats,	sacks	16,957	41,176	8,434	7,889	7,396
Oil, Linseed,	bbls	1,007	522	——	40	526
Oil, Castor,	bbls	933	1,269	1,231	1,458	1,493
Oil, Lard,	bbls	——	619	733	3,337	3,420
Pork,	bbls	56,467	62,820	22,330	50,225	35,211
Pork, bulk,	tons	661	805	203	438	183
Rye,	sacks	2,250	1,167	1,750	4,188	3,120
Shot,	kegs	2,506	4,122	4,216	3,070	3,393
Skins, deer,	packs	3,700	2,162	2,687	2,726	1,034
Seed, flax,	tierces	660	1,118	1,306	2,103	2,432
Tobacco,	hhds	9,881	8,450	11,284	9,500	19,730
Tobacco, manufactured,	boxes	4,841	6,183	7,832	8,844	7,734
Tallow,	bbls	2,092	5,955	1,316	2,313	1,380
Wheat,	bbls	10,318	16,231	29,796	16,864	20,691
Wheat,	sacks	640,239	217,319	68,634	60,894	48,331
Wool,	bales	1,414	1,335	1,326	1,084	311

TOBACCO.

Comparative Receipts, Sales, and Direct Shipments, for the last five years.

YEAR.	Total Receipts.	Sales Here.	Shipped Direct.
1843	20,668	6,847	13,822
1844	10,013	4,447	5,566
1845	12,856	6,290	6,566
1846	8,767	3,898	4,869
1847	10,935	5,089	5,846

COMPARATIVE MONTHLY PRICES OF TOBACCO,

For the last four years.

MONTHS.	1847.	1846.	1845.	1844.
January,	$3 00@3 25	$4 00@4 25	$3 00@3 25	$3 00@3 50
February,	3 00@3 25	3 75@4 00	3 00@3 25	3 00@3 50
March,	3 00@3 25	3 75@4 00	3 00@3 25	3 00@3 50
April,	3 00@3 25	3 75@4 00	3 00@3 25	2 50@3 00
May,	3 00@3 25	3 75@4 00	3 25@3 50	2 75@3 00
June,	3 50@4 00	4 00@4 25	4 00@4 25	3 75@4 00
July,	3 50@4 00	3 75@4 00	4 25@4 50	3 75@4 00
August,	3 75@4 25	3 75@4 00	4 25@4 50	3 75@4 00
September,	3 50@4 00	3 75@4 00	4 25@4 50	3 50@3 75
October,	3 75@4 25	3 50@3 75	4 25@4 50	3 50@3 75
November,	3 75@4 25	3 25@3 50	4 25@4 50	3 00@3 25
December,	3 75@4 25	3 00@3 25	4 25@4 50	3 00@3 25

COMPARATIVE MONTHLY PRICES OF FLOUR,

For the last four years.

MONTHS.	1847.	1846.	1845.	1844.
January	$3 62@3 75	$4 37½@4 50	$3 62½@3 70	$3 75 @4 00
February	4 62@4 75	4 00 @4 12½	3 60 @3 62½	3 75 @4 00
March	4 37@4 50	3 87½@4 00	3 60 @3 62½	3 95 @4 12½
April	4 62@4 75	3 50 @3 62½	3 45 @3 50	3 70 @3 75
May	4 87@5 00	2 95 @3 00	3 65 @3 70	3 70 @3 75
June	6 25@6 50	3 05 @3 10	3 65 @3 70	3 50 @3 55
July	4 50@4 62	2 00 @2 25	3 70 @3 75	3 70 @3 75
August	4 62@4 75	2 50 @2 55	3 45 @3 50	3 75 @4 00
September,	3 87@4 00	2 87½@3 00	3 00 @3 06½	3 80 @3 90
October	4 30@4 37	3 75 @3 80	3 12½@3 25	3 87½@4 00
November	4 50@4 62	3 80 @3 87½	3 70 @3 75	3 56 @3 00
December	5 00@5 25	3 75 @3 80	5 75 @6 00	3 75 @4 00

COMPARATIVE MONTHLY PRICES OF WHEAT,

For the last four years.

MONTHS.	1847.	1846.	1845.	1844.
January	Cts. 50@ 62	Cts. 70 @75	Cts. 68 @70	Cts. 65@70
February	80@ 85	65 @68	60 @65	68@70
March	65@ 75	63 @66	68 @70	75@80
April	80@ 85	62½@65	65 @67	70@75
May	90@ 95	63 @65	68 @70	70@72
June	110@125	50 @52	68 @70	60@62½
July	80@ 90	38 @40	70 @73	50@56
August	75@ 85	48 @50	50 @53	60@65
September	70@ 80	50 @53	54 @56	65@68
October	80@ 87	60 @63	62½@65	60@62½
November	75@ 85	57 @59	75 @80	70@73
December	87@100	58 @60	85 @90	67@70

COMPARATIVE MONTHLY PRICES OF CORN,

For the last four years.

MONTHS.	1847.	1846.	1845.	1844.
January	Cts. 33@35	Cts. 26@28	Cts. 28@30	Cts. 24@26
February	35@36	24@26	28@30	25@26
March	45@50	25@26	28@30	25@26
April	45@50	21@23	29@31	25@26
May	33@34	20@21	27@28	26@28
June	43@45	19@20	27@28	26@28
July	33@35	16@18	29@30	33@35
August	33@35	17@19	26@28	28@31
September	31@33	23@25	24@26	28@30
October	35@37	30@33	24@26	28@30
November	28@30	23@25	24@26	33@35
December	28@31	28@30	30@35	30@32

COMPARATIVE MONTHLY PRICES OF HEMP,

For the last four years.

MONTHS.	1847.	1846	1845.	1844.
January	$ 50@ 60	$65@68	$58@60	$70@75
February	55@ 65	58@60	58@60	70@75
March	60@ 70	58@60	58@60	76@80
April	85@ 95	62@65	62@65	73@75
May	75@ 85	48@50	68@70	70@73
June	65@ 72	48@50	68@70	60@65
July	85@ 95	46@48	70@75	58@60
August	90@100	48@50	60@70	65@70
September	90@100	44@46	65@68	70@72
October	105@115	46@48	60@65	65@68
November	105@120	48@50	65@68	63@65
December	100@110	56@60	62@65	60@62

COMPARATIVE MONTHLY PRICES OF LEAD,

For the last four years.

MONTHS.	1847.	1846.	1845.	1844.
January	$3 87@4 00	$3 7 @3 75	$3 25@3 30	$3 00@3 03
February	3 87@4 00	3 70@3 75	3 32@3 35	3 00@3 03
March	3 80@3 85	3 40@3 45	3 10@3 12½	2 85@2 87½
April	3 35@3 40	3 20@3 25	3 09@3 10	2 76@2 78
May	3 30@3 35	2 90@2 95	3 00@3 03	2 85@2 87½
June	3 45@3 50	3 30@3 35	2 95@3 00	3 00@3 02
July	3 40@3 45	3 25@3 30	3 32@3 35	2 90@2 92
August	3 35@3 40	3 15@3 20	3 25@3 30	2 93@2 95
September	3 65@3 70	3 25@3 30	3 45@3 47	3 00@3 05
October	3 87@4 00	3 48@3 50	3 68@3 70	3 10@3 12
November	4 05@4 10	3 70@3 75	3 80@3 85	3 45@3 50
December	4 00@4 05	3 80@3 85	4 00@4 03	3 25@3 37½

Gross amount of Receipts at the Custom House at St. Louis, from January 1st, 1843, to January 1st, 1848.

From January 1st, 1843, to January 1st, 1844,	$5,554 79
From January 1st, 1844, to January 1st, 1845,	16,181 11
From January 1st, 1845, to January 1st, 1846,	16,312 11
From January 1st, 1846, to January 1st, 1847,	29,781 69
From January 1st, 1847, to January 1st, 1848,	73,908 10

ART. XII.—COMMERCE OF NEW ORLEANS.

IMPORTS INTO NEW ORLEANS FROM THE INTERIOR,

From 1st September, 1846 and 1847.

ARTICLES.		This season	Last season	ARTICLES.		This season	Last season
Bacon, ass'd, hhds, ckse, bbls		4784	11005	Corn,	sacks & bbls	168163	419736
Bacon Hams, hhds & tierces		2657	4025	Flour,	bbls	339487	399257
Bacon, in bulk,	lbs	18000	206300	Hemp,	bales	7545	6568
Bagging,	pieces	24545	12553	Lard,	keg	78357	72852
Bale Rope,	coils	22214	7703	Lard,	hhds & bbls	17466	14153
Beef,	tierces and bbls	28024	12735	Lead, pig,	pigs	204500	186937
Butter,	kegs and firkins	15521	20064	Oats,	bbls & sacks	117657	152359
COTTON. Louisiana & Miss.,	bales	203180	201138	Pork,	hhds & bbls	58272	41453
COTTON. Lake,		1696	713	Pork, in bulk,	lbs	2.9760	1030.0
COTTON. N. Alabama & Tennessee		26633	60059	Sugar,	hhds	30645	25956
COTTON. Arkansas,		12030	9218	Tobacco,	hhds	10370	3985
COTTON. Mobile,		663	3257	Wheat,	bbls & sacks	20849	42975
COTTON. Florida,		593	758	Whisky,	bbls	39794	36249
COTTON. Texas,		1557	292				

COMPARATIVE ARRIVALS, EXPORTS AND STOCKS OF COTTON AND TOBACCO, AT NEW ORLEANS, FOR TEN YEARS,

From September 1st to August 31st.

YEARS.	COTTON—BALES.			TOBACCO—HHDS.		
	Arrivals.	Exports.	Stocks.	Arrivals.	Exports.	Stocks.
1846-47	740669	724508	23493	555 8	50376	22336
1845-46	1053633	1054857	6332	72896	62045	17924
1844-45	979238	981616	7556	71493	68579	7673
1843-44	910854	895375	12934	82435	81249	4859
1842-43	1089642	1088870	4700	92509	89691	4873
1841-42	740155	749267	4428	67555	68 58	2255
1840-41	822870	821288	14490	53170	54667	2758
1839-40	954445	949320	17867	43827	4 436	4409
1838-39	578514	579179	10308	28153	30780	1284
1837-38	742720	733313	9370	37588	35556	3834

IMPORTS FROM THE INTERIOR, INTO NEW ORLEANS, FOR TEN YEARS,

Commencing 1st September and ending 31st August, in each year.

ARTICLES.		1847.	1846.	1845.	1844.	1843.	1842.	1841.	1840.	1839.	1838.
Bacon, assorted,	casks	26932	25213	12592	19563	16568	13505	11231	7350	13748	11715
Bacon Hams,	casks	14518	12082	8368	19070	13588	9220	6111	4412	6249	5565
Bacon, in bulk,	lbs	425163	492700	350100	1203821	1453798	1288109	2593087	1117987	1501900	965250
Bagging, Western,	pieces	60982	96601	111324	100216	89721	60307	70976	66398	49697	45364
Bale Rope, Western,	coils	56201	56678	67600	63864	80932	63307	65613	47970	62602	61005
Butter,	kegs and firkins	51384	44172	30319	18531	19530	11791	14074	10429	7557	11967
Butter,	bbls	572	1491	396	500	894	284	693	780	429	279
Beef,	bbls & tierces	32735	62231	32674	49263	17549	17455	33262	10643	10777	6183
Cotton,	Louisiana & Miss., bales	463842	765315	668244	627769	624045	583328	677343	747884	469231	560406
	Lake, bales	4356	14276	19533	13231	14260	8967	5163	14960	2156	13536
	N. Ala. & Tenn., bales	211502	222677	196246	168234	191410	118629	118122	155166	79347	124539
	Arkansas, bales	35279	34576	23103	21835	30511	16734	11149	13767	7003	11969
	Mobile, bales	16379	6356	12123	47586	10657	4565	5881	15649	16768	23301
	Florida, bales	16966	6854	12830	12916	3381	2841	731	2727	1090	5437
	Texas, bales	2346	4249	25159	18170	15328	5101	4481	3962	2949	2232
Corn, in cars,	bbls	619756	358573	139686	165354	256058	246675	168060	152965	161918	270924
Corn, shelled,	sacks	2856510	1166120	391864	364052	427532	338709	268697	278398	338785	177761
Flour,	bbls	1617675	837965	633312	502907	621175	439688	496194	482523	434954	320208
Hemp,	bundles	60238	30991	46274	38062	14873	1211	450	500	4044	450
Lard,	bbls	117077	107639	60078	119717	107839	18207	9672	5007	6820	3737
Lard,	kegs	275076	334969	245414	373341	307871	366694	311710	177303	218387	224358
Lead, pig,	pigs	650129	785394	752125	639269	671949	472556	434467	307397	309528	294448
Oats,	bbls & sacks	588337	269386	144262	130432	120430	63281	54250	42835	38706	25614
Pork,	bbls	302170	304601	216960	412928	206843	244442	216974	120808	166071	139463
Pork,	bbls	9452	9988	7541	8800	2371	946	763	1067	1160	1523
Pork, in bulk,	lbs	84507100	97407522	40796610	77920060	68147590	40511000	97432220	50698887	71921536	34744776
Tallow,	bbls	6658	8255	7828	7323	6995	5071	937	200	746	135
Tobacco, Leaf,	hhds	55628	72896	71493	82435	86947	92519	67655	53170	43827	28153	37393
Whisky,	bbls	126553	117104	97651	86947	83597	63345	73873	55857	29353	51890
Wheat,	bbls and sacks	5336491	4037866	64559	860144	1182481	1348966	2621	63018	17880	2027

DIRECT IMPORTS OF COFFEE, SUGAR AND SALT,

For three years, from September 1 to August 31.

ARTICLES.		1846–47.	1845–46.	1844–45.
Coffee, Havana,	bags	43931	10899	4094
Coffee, Rio,	bags	205111	215031	167669
Sugar, Havana,	boxes	45889	5442	3473
Salt, Liverpool,	sacks	344852	259481	361486
Salt, Turk's Island, &c.,	bushel	194431	110849	518407

Value of Products from the Interior, for four years.

Total estimated value in 1843–44,	$60,094,716
Total estimated value in 1844–45,	57,199,122
Total estimated value in 1845–46,	77,193,564
Total estimated value in 1846–47,	90,033,256

DIRECT IMPORTS OF FOREIGN MERCHANDIZE INTO N. ORLEANS,

From 1st September, to 25th December, in 1847 and 1846.

ARTICLES.		Past 3 days.	Previously.	Last season.
Coffee—Cuba, &c.,	bags	44	1684	6942
Coffee—Rio,	bags	—	66527	16335
Sugar—Havana,	boxes	—	3686	3444
Sugar—Havana,	hhds	—	30	—
Salt—Liverpool,	sacks	—	78935	101075
Salt—Turk's Island, &c.,	bushel	—	201422	69230

IMPORTS OF SPECIE INTO NEW ORLEANS,

From 1st September to 25th December, in 1847 and 1846.

This week, - - - - - - - - - - - -	$2,000
Previously, - - - - - - - - - - - -	729,808
Total to date this season, - - - - -	$731,808
Total to date last season, - - - - -	892,298

EXPORTS FROM NEW ORLEANS,

From 1st September, to 25th December, 1847—and same time 1846.

SUGAR AND MOLASSSES.

DESTINATION.	SUGAR.		MOLASSES.	
	Hdds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.
New York,	5382	2	147	9071
Philadelphia,	3212	130	000	2573
Norfolk, Rich. & Pe'g,	1452	3	000	1758
Charleston,	722	63	000	1982
Baltimore,	2442	00	000	3903
Boston,	483	32	200	2554
Savannah,	44	00	000	501
Providence, Bristol, &c.,	00	00	000	000
Newport,	00	00	000	000
New Haven,	00	00	000	000
Alexandria & Georget'n,	230	00	000	112
Portsmouth,	000	00	000	000
Mobile,	1120	300	000	1150
Apalachicola,	268	32	000	268
Pensacola,	25	00	000	105
Other coastw. Ports,	35	15	000	70
Great Britain,	00	00	000	00
*TOTAL—	15418	577	347	24047
Same time last year,	13671	713	64	14592
Same year before,	15284	1174	47	16991

*Including Exports from Franklin, Louisiana, to December 1st.

COTTON BALES.

WHITHER EXPORTED.	P'st 3 d'ys	Prev'usly	Total.	Last sea'n
Liverpool,	1788	72122		55637
London,	00	00		00
Glasgow, Greenock, &c.,	00	3461		2132
Cowes, Falmouth, &c.,	00	4044		3089
Belfast, Cork, &c.,	00	00		00
Total to Great Britain,	1788	79627	81415	60858
Havre,	4586	40118		19951
Bordeaux,	00	610		67
Marseilles,	00	2664		2971
Nantz, Rouen, &c.,	00	1538		345
Total to France,	4586	44930	49516	23334
Gottenburg, &c.,	00	00		00
Amsterdam and Rotterdam,	00	00		00
Bremen,	249	1287		162
Antwerp,	00	7382		150
Hamburg,	2622	00		00
Stockholm,	00	00		00
St. Petersburg,	00	00		00
Total North of Europe,	2871	8669	11540	312
Gibraltar, &c.,	00	00		00
Havana and Spain,	2384	8168		7761
Mexico, &c.,	635	3038		1129
Genoa, Trieste, &c.,	800	14142		10114
Canton, (China,)	00	00		00
Total other Foreign ports,	3819	25348	29167	19004
New York,	516	16145		12428
Boston,	3880	23411		13167
Providence,	00	00		00
Philadelphia,	260	2039		2100
Baltimore,	336	1899		767
Portsmouth,	00	00		1508
Western States, &c.,	00	115		259
Total Coastwise,	4992	43609	48601	30229
TOTAL,—ba'es—	0000	0000	220239	133737

FLOUR, PORK, BACON AND LARD.

DESTINATION.	Flour--Bbls	Pork—Bbls	Bacon-hhds	Lard--Kegs
New York	20579	15547	847	24418
Boston	61692	8503	370	28648
Philadelphia	10685	1366	152	3751
Baltimore	....	1437	429	2475
Charleston	750	....	153	1690
Other United States ports	11953	1630	1656	3539
Cuba,	2416	215	121	20830
Other Foreign ports	21249	2743	50	6193
*TOTAL,	129324	3136	3778	89774
Last season,	182013	33135	5818	139239

*Lard reduced to kegs--Pork and Beef to barrels.

TOBACCO—HHDS.

WHITHER EXPORTED.	PAST 3 DAYS.	PREVIOUSLY.	TOTAL.	LAST SEASON.
Liverpool,	715	4215	00	2225
London,	00	6319	00	3601
Cowes, Falmouth, &c.,	00	00	00	712
Total to G. Britain,	715	10534	11249	6538
Havre,	750	00	00	00
Bordeaux,	00	00	00	00
Marseilles,	00	300	00	852
Total to France,	750	300	1050	855
Stockholm,	00	00	00	00
Amsterdam & Rott'dam,	00	00	00	568
Bremen,	555	00	00	1887
Antwerp,	00	975	00	1415
Hamburg,	00	00	00	00
Gottenburg, &c.,	00	00	00	00
Total North of Europe,	552	975	1527	3870
Spain and Gibraltar,	00	6608	00	2012
Africa,	00	200	00	00
West Indies,	00	243	00	227
Leghorn, Trieste, &c.,	00	766	00	1678
Total other For. ports,	00	7817	7817	3917
New York,	50	2147	00	962
Boston,	00	224	00	129
Philadelphia,	00	597	00	150
Baltimore,	00	17	00	00
Richmond and Norfolk,	00	00	00	00
Other ports,	00	13	00	7
Total Coastwise,	50	2998	3048	1248
TOTAL—hhds—	00	00	24691	16426

BEEF, LEAD, WHISKY AND CORN.

DESTINATION.	Beef—Bbls.	Lead—Pigs.	Whisky—Bbls	Corn—Sacks.
New York,	2315	93218	5532	16479
Boston,	2431	53123	270	35605
Philadelphia,	199	28163	1718	933
Baltimore,	430	3231	3247	....
Charleston,	98	35	3798	....
Other U. S. ports,	490	...	8005	9495
Cuba	167	...	....	17662
Other Foreign ports	1194	320	184	8268
TOTAL,	7326	178090	12754	88442
Last season,	9338	272694	12154	225139

EXPORTS of Sugar and Molasses, from New Orleans, for five years, (up the river excepted,) from 1st September to 31st August.

WHITHER EXPORTED.	1846-47.				1845-46.				1844-45.				1843-44				1842-43.			
	SUGAR.		MOLASSES.		SUGAR.		MOLASSES		SUGAR.		MOLASSES		SUGAR.		MOLASSES.		SUGAR.		MOLASSES.	
	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds	Bbls.	Hhds	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.
New York,	16754	802	2842	1586	33068	2448	3002	17515	49442	6794	9873	34322	11422	217	1882	15744	31549	....	7285	28030
Philadelphia,	11653	653	60	451	21804	2421	581	13925	21392	1422	2418	11575	8478	697	354	4214	14474	708	1088	9091
Charleston, S. C.,	3147	647	....	3238	3412	1198	2	6328	4426	95	....	5610	1502	....	....	5467	1090	100	63	3986
Savannah,	1352	58	....	1758	1062	65	....	2214	782	10	....	2686	483	....	....	1254	210	....	....	1640
Providence & Bristol,	....	....	....	....	....	....	579	280	....	....	1472	1051	....	....	475	55	....	....	576	106
Boston,	695	343	22	413	3208	1288	318	1402	6062	543	2124	14221	217	....	....	1061	2814	..	976	4609
Baltimore,	5981	395	337	3348	9143	1672	185	5181	12564	480	547	10943	5492	4	586	5231	8661	663	1162	8459
Norfolk, Richmond & P'ters'bg	4806	966	252	3225	3997	1215	27	3767	4500	208	96	6029	564	....	....	2039	610	28	....	947
													1590	1	....	1481	2337	....	216	2316
Alexandria, D. C.,	156	....	....	511	175	....	....	428	201	..	95	84	280	....	....	350	592	....	....	575
Mobile,	3783	1038	....	6497	5739	1020	10	13464	3534	668	76	5218	3257	17	....	2826	3011	375	....	3313
Apalachicola & Pensa.,	1415	473	....	2565	1067	158	....	2039	838	102	....	1795	1070	548	....	2440	565	308	....	2260
Other ports,	371	76	540	286	533	8	....	671	760	239	391	881	42	22	112	754	102	100	800	1369
TOTAL—	60113	5451	4053	42208	83208	11493	4703	67214	104501	10561	17094	94415	34395	1544	3409	42962	66044	2280	12366	66901

EXPORTS of Flour, Pork, Bacon, Lard, Beef, Lead, Whisky and Corn, for three years, from 1st September to 31st August.

DESTINATION.	1846-47.								1845-46.								1844-45.							
	FLOUR, Barrels.	PORK, Barrels.	BACON, Hhds.	LARD, Kegs.	BEEF, Barrels.	LEAD, Pigs.	WHISKY, Barrels.	CORN, Sacks.	FLOUR, Barrels.	PORK, Barrels.	BACON, Hhds.	LARD, Kegs.	BEEF, Barrels.	LEAD, Pigs.	WHISKY, Barrels.	CORN, Sacks.	FLOUR, Barrels.	PORK, Barrels.	BACON, Hhds.	LARD, Kegs.	BEEF, Barrels.	LEAD, Pigs.	WHISKY, Barrels.	CORN, Sacks.
New York,	63877	77828	3480	209945	9167	339560	8210	107890	83854	88228	2873	2 4323	5162	309681	4098	172186	74802	56046	1565	119967	5805	329345	2592	30061
Boston,	96507	76755	2379	165513	9053	123917	1162	1 9678	122148	89164	848	19 504	3501	139364	150	489523	75960	79617	727	133474	5922	135 89	600	81341
Philadelphia,	13296	5247	852	53377	564	135489	4856	15324	250	29783	1238	69153	99	7 113	647	3671	3638	17242	834	39275	874	88810	1256	....
Bal imore,	3637	17167	1159	23251	556	9962	7103	3253	....	19523	729	39619	446	11961	2175	1000	....	3115	624	23163	350	17455	500	....
Charleston,	7720	1004	2874	5362	150	465	8180	800	11476	2828	1962	5677	275	4620	8982	87953	1109	1038	2533	9332	24	....	4472	4382
Other C'stw. p'rts	38381	11033	1092	12613	2913	1000	3305	43842	68441	13434	1270	20671	4490	8460	41869	175582	43959	5603	5559	133 5	1827	78	22495	67513
Cuba,	43051	1092	1015	141002	467	149	....	133798	7094	1005	610	92336	391	....	....	....	23587	520	190	89997	206	....	....	9096
Other For'n. ports	1053037	40394	3053	293714	29096	13716	743	2076228	279931	28354	64	168621	13798	74086	260	211674	55891	8178	50	39818	8961	126262	495	27912
TOTAL—	1319506	230520	25804	907977	51996	624258	68259	2620813	573194	279319	21042	790904	58162	718 2 5	58181	941589	278137	181109	12062	468338	23969	707439	32360	229295

☞ In the above, the exports to Mobile, &c., via the Pontchartrain Railroad and New Canal, are included.

EXPORTS of Cotton and Tobacco, from New Orleans, for ten years—commencing 1st of September, and ending 31st of August.

WHITHER EXPORTED.	BALES OF COTTON.										HHDS. OF TOBACCO.									
	1846–47	1845–46	1844–45	1843–44	1842–43	1841–42	1840–41	1839–40	1838–39	1837–38	1846–47	1845–46	1844–45	1843–44	1842–43	1841–42	1840–41	1839–40	1838–39	1837–38
Liverpool,	367810	521953	529675	488817	624681	393990	396010	459943	297793	466886	3374	8976	4947	8808	6788	6930	5252	3827	4115	2695
London,	48	159	2025	518	61	38	3 4	113	6	123	5173	12888	6475	8291	9851	7212	8732	4320	3725	3579
Glasgow & Greenock,	10598	17893	36213	21265	35831	15574	20415	26603	7390	16147	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	37	....
Cowes, Falmouth, &c	6102	8134	17975	14893	15939	10740	9188	13560	2459	48	1148	2641	1131	5424	10798	6827	6681	992	871	3695
Cork, Belfast, &c.,	810	14181	....	2182	2926	1108	4393	4549	2139	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Havre,	90103	146153	112995	107973	159658	161103	157277	246311	110978	110384	1159	2215	3514	4846	4648	4 37	4224	3655	1455	2658
Bordeaux,	330	2315	2314	1418	2861	2247	28 7	6581	1368	4407	242	1067	1565	1156	2332	19 4	814	11 7	....	504
Marseilles,	3323	6866	7857	7462	9962	16992	21933	21989	6371	7129	2086	1006	3934	5102	4665	1933	1774	1814	315	1516
Nantz, Cette & Rouen,	1963	4254	1854	3127	8374	2930	1914	5609	2170	6383	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Amsterdam,	....	2019	1253	1360	2593	584	....	3688	49	932	....	451	50	3775	2700	1138	....	....	224	....
Rotterdam & Ghent,	595	53	2355	512	2173	2907	....	709	....	....	568	1104	104	917	2933	1882	....	....	....	....
Bremen,	4369	3419	9211	2770	13303	6369	1706	1084	47	636	4446	6328	12012	96 2	7888	8997	4 12	2464	1366	1503
Antwerp, &c.,	2912	7838	7196	8499	17693	52 9	2264	7377	....	1598	1652	4294	3862	2178	5657	369	1219	1090	....	....
Hamburg,	7466	3585	9123	3156	13664	5678	2983	6846	310	3149	403	181	786	23 3	1477	3401	1164	1465	....	276
Gottenburg,	4376	3877	1630	402	114	286	2793	2994	947	343	949	943	909	734	963	946	1559	745	939	576
Spain and Gibraltar,	177 5	1679	821	....	401	78	561	1568	1225	5423	11795	9843	6749	10681	4496	72 4	4142	3848	3409	1542
Havana, Mexico, &c.	9376	29800	62083	33151	21177	12818	19002	3 594	3380	2659	....	....	9 3	1601	1163	981	102	1 13	618	725
Genoa, Trieste, &c.,	30542	52607	272 1	19704	17662	10610	16801	25652	4820	5910	5046	2375	301	1556	1760	559	2	44	598	563
China,	....	...	2353	....	4303	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Other foreign ports,	6579	8050	2267	1208	1342	174	90	1044	113	902	1008	298	794	1177	217	516	667	343	315	186
New York,	55187	74757	52680	82814	48036	31215	55930	46354	62175	39384	5458	4848	6936	6961	1533	7 90	7466	8132	8174	9758
Boston,	75546	111666	75357	72400	73891	54062	81626	54042	49497	39853	2664	913	4938	2585	3650	2351	319	2888	2816	2616
Providence, R. I.,	470	5783	78	211	674	1910	3132	1811	3701	1607	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Philadelphia,	13582	1369	6784	6919	3253	2846	5721	6196	6371	8224	2779	1030	2536	1286	2845	936	2126	1963	1291	1649
Baltimore,	7288	557	3640	4698	3278	1703	4832	3045	3450	6341	301	427	478	1167	2433	2 8	517	219	296	779
Portsmouth,	3491	2769	153	4136	....	2658	9 25	5099	5369	4819	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Other coastwise ports	1437	910	2423	3280	300	3716	581	6020	7171	5526	115	217	2145	1100	2194	225	287	482	225	617
Western States,	2500	5000	600	2500	2000	1722	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
TOTAL,	724508	1054857	984616	895375	1058370	749267	821288	949320	579179	738313	50376	62 45	68679	81249	89891	68058	54667	4 436	30780	35555

RECAPITULATION.

Great Britain,	385364	56232	5858 8	527675	679438	421450	43 310	5047683	9787	4832 4	9695	24505	12553	22523	27437	2 969	2 665	9139	8748	9968
France,	95719	159328	12502	111998	180875	183272	183931	24 490	12 787	12 303	3497	4288	913	141 4	11645	6974	6812	6606	1770	4 78
North of Europe,	26297	28841	33035	179 7	5 882	212 7	9836	23742	1466	7560	848	133 1	19 51	20175	21618	2 252	6 40	6 05	2654	2439
S. of Europe & China,	57623	84 88	92 58	52855	43543	23506	36364	57754	9425	13992	17849	12516	11029	14349	7536	9 53	5645	5 2	48 6	2860
Coastwise,	159501	226082	148215	176958	134132	99832	16 847	122566	137734	1 5254	11317	7435	17033	13098	21655	10810	13505	13684	128.2	15110
TOTAL,	724508	1054857	984616	895375	1089870	749267	321288	949320	579179	738313	50376	62045	68679	81249	89891	68058	54667	40436	30780	35555

COMPARATIVE PRICES OF COTTON, ON 25TH DECEMBER,

In the following years.

	1847.	1846.	1845.	1844.
Inferior,	—@—	00@00	00@6¼	3 @3½
Ordinary to good Ordinary,	5½@6½	8½ @ 9	6½@6¾	4 @4½
Middling,	6½@6¾	9½@ 9½	7 @7⅛	4¼@5
Good Middling,	6¾@6⅞	9½@ 9¾	7⅛@7¼	
Middling Fair,	7⅛@7½	9¾@10	7¼@7½	5¼@5½
Fair,	7½@7¾	10¼@10⅝	7½@8	6 @6¼
Good Fair,	nominal.	10¾@11	8⅛@8¾	6¾@7¼
Good and Fine,	nominal.	11¼@12	9 @10	7½@00

COMMERCE AND IMPROVEMENTS OF LEXINGTON, MISSOURI.

We have taken the following statistics from the "Lexington Weekly Express" of January 18th, 1848:

"*Mercantile Business.*—The exports for the year amounted to about $250,000—the staples of this section of country—hemp, wheat, flour, dry-hides, bacon, pork, lard, &c., making up the principal portion of that sum. The imports were something near $200,000 in value, consisting of goods, groceries, salt, lumber, &c.

"Horses to the value of $20,000, and oxen to the sum of $25,000, have been purchased and sent from this point.

"The aggregate number of hogs packed since the 1st of November last, has reached 6,700.

"During the season, there were nearly 190 arrivals of steamboats up stream, and about 180 down stream.

"We find, at this time, 17 dry goods houses; 2 dry goods and boat stores, 1 family grocery; 2 tin-ware and stove stores, 3 drug stores, and 3 lumber yards.

"*Mechanical Employments.*—Blacksmiths, 8 shops; coopers, 5 shops; cabinet makers, 2 shops; carpenters, 11 shops; iron and steel turners, 1 shop; wagon makers, 6 shops; coach makers, 1 shop; silver smiths, 3 shops; tinners and sheet iron workers, 2 shops; painters and glaziers, 2 shops; chair makers, 1 shop; saddlers, 4 shops; tailors, 7 shops; shoemakers, 3 shops; bakeries, 3 shops; milliners, 4 shops; gunsmiths, 1 shop.

"There are two printing offices and one book-bindery and blank book manufactory.

"*Professions and Schools.*—Physicians, 14; dentists, 4; attorneys at law, 14.

"There is one high school for young men; one for young ladies; two schools for boys, and four for girls.

"*Mills and Manufactories.*—Steam flouring mills, 2, (one now building;) steam

saw mills, 2; steam distilleries, 2, (one now building;) wool carding machines, 1; tanneries, 1; fanning mill manufactory, 1; rope walks, 3.

"*Banks and Insurance Offices.*—Branch of the State Bank of Missouri; 1 Agency for the Mutual Fire and Marine Insurance Company, of St. Louis, and 1 Agency for the Home Mutual Fire and Marine Insurance Company of St. Louis."

The improvements of last year, in part, consist of 43 buildings, principally dwellings; there was also erected a Masonic College 3 stories, 50 by 80 feet, and a Court House 2 stories, 50 by 80 feet. There were about 3,000,000 brick burned in 1847, all of which were used in building except about 400,000.

COMMERCE AND POPULATION OF PEORIA, ILLINOIS.

We have made up the following statistics of the business and population of Peoria, from the "Peoria Register" of the 14th instant:

In point of beauty and pleasantness of location, Peoria stands unrivalled among the cities of the West. Nor is its situation less interesting in a business point of view. Situated about mid-way between St. Louis and Chicago; communicating with the Mississippi River and the Lakes, by the means of navigation at once safe and sufficient for all business purposes; surrounded by a country unsurpassed in fertility; and settled by a population intelligent, enterprising and industrious, it promises to take rank among the important cities of the Mississippi Valley.

The exports for the year 1847 are valued at $500,000, and consist of the following articles:

Flour 38,550 barrels; wheat 100,776 bushels; corn 204,850 bushels; oats 15,279 bushels; barley 1,550 bushels; pork 16,200 barrels; bacon in bulk 870,635 pounds; pork in bulk 656,640 pounds; whisky 4,500 barrels.

Steam Boats.—The number of steam boat arrivals at Peoria in 1846 was 871, being an increase of 177 over the preceding year. There were 60 boats in the trade at different times, 24 of which were regular packets. The aggregate amount of tonnage was 9,247. Four of these boats were owned at Peoria, and one at Chilicothe in the same county. The navigation opened on the 20th of February and closed on the 14th of December.

Pork and Beef Packing.—One individual, Mr. Tobias Myers, paid last season $60,891 for stock, besides the cost of slaughtering and packing. He slaughtered 1,108 head of beef cattle averaging 617 pounds; 4,230 hogs, and purchased hogs already slaughtered 1,680, making in all 5,910, of which 2,663 averaged 244 pounds. He packed 2,600 barrels of Navy beef; 2,400 barrels of Navy pork; 325 beef hams; 22 barrels of beef tongues, and 40 barrels of rump pork. The

yield of lard was 1,164 barrels; yield of tallow 61,400 pounds; 27 barrels of neats foot oil, and 123 barrels steam grease. Beef hides 92,100 pounds, average weight 83 pounds; the hams and shoulders in bulk 438,365 pounds.

Flouring Mills.—There was ground at Ruggles' Steam Mill 69,443 bushels of wheat, producing 13,900 barrels of flour, and at Rankin's Steam Mill 78,002½ bushels of wheat, producing 15,600 barrels of flour.

Distilleries.—Mr. S. Thompson shipped from his establishment in 1847, 4,500 barrels of whisky, and fattened 1,200 hogs. He consumed 65,000 bushels of corn, 35,000 bushels of stone coal, and paid $4,000 for labor.

"*Stores, Shops, Mechanics, &c.*—At this time there are in the city 24 dry good stores; 6 dry goods, boots and shoes; 11 grocery and provision stores; 5 hardware stores; 5 clothing stores; 5 drug stores; 9 drinking establishments; 3 jewelry shops; 4 copper, tin and sheet iron shops; 2 plow manufactories; 8 wagon maker shops; besides many other shops of various mechanics.

"The following will show the number of various mechanics in the city as near as I could get them: Carpenters and joiners, 86; coopers 40; masons, plasterers and stone masons, blacksmiths, 30; cabinet makers, 17; shoemakers, 20; tailors, 10; harness makers, 12; coach and wagon makers, 15; painters and glaziers, 12; chairmakers, 7; mill makers, 6; plow makers, 9; hatters, 4; machinists, 3; moulders 6; silversmiths, 7; tin and coppersmiths, 7; gunsmiths, 3; stone cutters, 5; bakers, 7; potters, 3; printers, 11; and 3 weekly papers, and a job-office; 15 lawyers; 11 physicians; 3 dentists, and 3 portrait painters.

"The following will show the population of the city from 1844 to the present with the increase in each year:

"January 1, '44, under 20 years, 805; over 20 years, 814; total, 1619.

"January 1, '45, under 20 years, 972; over 20 years, 962; total, 1934; increase in each, 315.

"Jannary 1, '46, under 20 years, 1136; over 20 years, 1256; total, 2392; increase in each, 458.

"January 1, '47, under 20 years, 1522; over 20 years, 1492; total, 3014; increase in each, 622; increase in voters, 183.

"January 1, '48, under 20 years, 2327; over 20 years; 1752; total, 4079. increase in each, 1085; increase of voters 163."

There are 633 dwellings and 77 stores in the city: of the former 238 are brick and 385 frame, and of the latter 34 are brick and 43 frame.

WHITNEY'S PACIFIC RAILROAD.—The projected road from the North-western States to the Pacific, advocated by Mr. Whitney, has increased its proselytes, if we may judge from the resolutions lately sent to Congress by the New York Legislature, and the resolution passed by that of Alabama.